

HISTORY OF ENGLAND

FROM

THE PEACE OF UTRECHT,

TO

THE PEACE OF VERSAILLES.

1713—1783

BY LORD MAHON.

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THE
HISTORY OF ENGLAND
FROM
THE PEACE OF UTRECHT.

CHAPTER LXI.

THE rising ferment in England, at the close of 1779 and commencement of 1780, was shown in numerous county meetings, all tending to Economical Reform. It was natural that, at such a period, the complaints of the people should take that course. There was a pang in contributing to taxes for the prosecution of the war, and receiving no news of triumph in return. There was a contrast, such as could not fail to strike the least observant minds, of the frequently recurring debts upon the Civil List with the personal frugality and unostentatious habits of the King. There was a clamour, and a just one surely, at the number of sinecure places bestowed on undeserving men, — at seeing suddenly enriched so many a son or nephew of some but second-rate Minister; each decked with some scarce intelligible title, as Clerk of the Pipe, or Clerk of the Pells, or one of the Justices in Eyre; each enabled, under cover of this gibberish, to draw an ample salary.

Such feelings, which could not fail to arise in a long protracted and as yet inglorious war, were, of course, heightened and inflamed by all the skill of Opposition.

In the first fortnight of December, 1779, two motions for Economical Reform were brought forward in the House of Lords; the one by the Duke of Richmond, the second by the Earl of Shelburne. Both were rejected by large majorities. But on the same night as Lord Shelburne's Burke in the Commons gave notice, that after the Christmas holidays he would introduce a Bill on this important subject. At the same time he also stated the outline of his intended measure, and received warm encouragements from Fox and other of his friends. "I am just come," said Fox, "from another place, where the first men in this kingdom, the first in abilities, the first in estimation, are now libelling this House." Here, many a member may have, as Fox expected, shown surprise. "Yes, I repeat it," cried Fox. "Every instance they give—and they give many and strong instances—of uncorrected abuse with regard to public money is a libel on this House. . . . Every thing they state on the luxuriant growth of corrupt influence—and it never was half so flourishing—is a libel on this House."*

Richmond and Shelburne, though outvoted, were not foiled. The ill success of the Parliamentary attacks, far from checking, rather incited and called forth, the popular demonstrations. Before the month of December had expired, an important meeting, which served as a pattern to the rest, was held in the chief town of our greatest county. From a single private room at York there went forth with no common strength the cry for Economical Reform. There stood Rockingham and Savile; there crowded in the independent freeholders, notwithstanding the many efforts that were made by threat or by persuasion, to prevent them from attending. Such at least was the charge brought by the Marquis of Carmarthen, who was Lord Lieutenant of the East Riding at the time of the meeting, but who, concurring in its object, was in consequence dismissed from his Lord Lieutenancy.†

* Parl. Hist. vol. xx. p. 1302.

† Speech in the House of Lords, February 8. 1780. He stigmatises the means which had been used as "mean, shabby, pitiful, and unwarrantable." That very day he had received the news of

In spite of every exertion to the contrary, upwards of 8,000 freeholders signed the county petition agreed upon at York, praying the House of Commons to reduce all exorbitant emoluments, and abolish all sinecure places. Another part of the York proceedings was to appoint a Committee of sixty-one gentlemen to carry on the necessary correspondence for promoting the prayer of the petition, and likewise to prepare the plan of a national association for the same object, and for "such other measures as might conduce to restore the freedom of "Parliament."

The example of York was soon followed by other shires. Middlesex was the next to meet. And within a very few weeks, twenty-three more of our English counties, and eleven of our largest cities or towns, had been convened. In all these there were adopted petitions similar to that of York; in most of them there were also named Committees of Correspondence. The latter, being far too clearly framed from the precedents set by the revolted Colonies, were much disapproved by Lord Carmarthen and other moderate men, and were dropped accordingly in several of the counties. Nor, indeed, did the petitions for Economical Reform everywhere pass unanimously. Open resistance to their prayer was not likely to prevail. It was tried with very ill success at Huntingdon by the Earl of Sandwich. But protests, declaring that the whole should be left to the wisdom of Parliament, were signed by great part of the landed gentlemen in many places. — It is to be noted, that in all the steps tending to Economical Reform both branches of the old Opposition — the followers of Lord Rockingham and the followers of the late Lord Chatham — appear to have cordially concurred. Thus, while Lord Rockingham was busy in York, Lord Shelburne was no less busy in Buckinghamshire; and Chatham's son-in-law, Lord Mahon, became the Chairman of the Kent Committee.*

his dismissal, which no doubt may have given a keener edge to his epithets.

* For some of the ulterior proceedings, see in the Appendix to this volume Lord Shelburne's Letter to Lord Mahon, April 7. 1780.

The great Yorkshire petition was presented to the Commons, on the 8th of February, by the principal Yorkshire member, Sir George Savile. On that occasion, as the forms of the House did not yet prohibit, Savile delivered a speech in its support. His slender figure and his feeble voice (then especially he was suffering from hoarseness) seemed to expand, and his delicate frame to gather strength, from the magnitude of the interests confided to his charge; and his brother members, preserving an unbroken silence, showed him all the attention and respect due to a character so upright and unsullied. Three days later, Burke brought forward the motion that he had announced on Economical Reform. His speech, as shortly afterwards it was revised and published by himself, may deserve to rank among the highest of his oratorical productions. "One of the ablest speeches I have ever heard," said Lord North in reply; "a speech such as no other member could have made." Here the brilliant hues of fancy impart form and colour even to the dry bones of financial calculation. Here the very details of the Exchequer grow amusing. Thus lightly, for example, does Burke play on the defects of the five lesser sovereign jurisdictions of the realm: "Ours is not a monarchy in strictness; but as in the Saxon times this country was an heptarchy as now it is a strange sort of pentarchy. . . . Cross a brook, and you lose the King of England; but you have some comfort in coming again under His Majesty, though shorn of his beams, and no more than Prince of Wales. Go to the north, and you find him dwindled to a Duke of Lancaster; turn to the west of that north, and he pops upon you in the humble character of Earl of Chester. Travel a few miles on, the Earl of Chester disappears, and the King surprises you again as Count Palatine of Lancaster. If you travel beyond Mount Edgcombe you find him once more in his incognito, and he is Duke of Cornwall. So that, quite fatigued and satiated with this dull variety, you are infinitely refreshed when you return to the sphere of his proper splendour, and behold your amiable Sovereign in his true, simple, undisguised, native character of Majesty."

Burke proposed that these five lesser jurisdictions should be wholly swept away. "When the reason of 'old establishments is gone'—thus with the truest Conservative wisdom he spoke on another branch of his subject—"it is absurd to keep nothing but the burthen of them. This is superstitiously to embalm a carcase not worth an ounce of the gums that are used to 'preserve it.'"

In the same spirit did Burke apply himself to the abuses in the great departments of the Royal Household. One attempt to correct them, he said, had indeed been made in the present reign. Lord Talbot, as High Steward, observing the lavish expense of the King's kitchen, had reduced several tables, and put the persons entitled to them upon board wages.—But subsequent duties requiring constant attendance, it was not found possible to prevent the King's servants being fed where they were employed. "And thus unluckily," said Burke, "this first step towards economy doubled the expense!"

It formed part of the orator's design, as he explained it, not merely to new model the Royal Household, and to clear it of its cumbrous offices, but to regulate the posts of Paymaster of the Forces and Treasurer of the Navy, to reduce the profits of the Auditors of the Exchequer, and to abolish altogether the Board of Trade, the Civil branch of the Ordnance, and the third Secretaryship of State. That Burke's ideas of reform were as yet too extensive, and not sufficiently matured, may be asserted on the authority of Burke himself; since, at a later period, when invested with the responsibilities of office, and allowed a longer time for reflection, he thought proper to recede from so large a portion of his scheme. Other parts, however, have been carried into execution with the happiest effect; and the high statesman-like ability, with which Burke, in his speech, pleads for all the wise and temperate—wise, because temperate—principles on which he argues, is such as to claim the most careful perusal, and the most respectful mention, so long as the British Parliament or the British people may endure. Yet this was the man whom the superior genius of Lord John Cavendish, or of the Marquis of Rockingham, did not deem worthy to sit in Cabinet with them,

and whom they consigned to a second place! How high an office in the state would Burke have been summoned to fill, had either birth or marriage made him even a third cousin of His Grace the Duke of Devonshire!

The eloquence of Burke on these mere economical details, enlivened, as we see it, by constant pleasantry, and enriched from abundant stores of reading, may deserve the higher admiration, if it be contrasted with the style of common financiers.* Many such are found to value themselves mainly on their dryness and their dulness. Many such will occur to the recollection of every man who has sat in the House of Commons, even for a single Session, as fulfilling to the letter Goldsmith's masterly delineation of a self-styled man of business:—

"We men of business," says his Mr. Lofty, "despise the moderns; and as for the ancients, we have no time to read them. Why, now, here I stand, that know nothing of books. I say, Madam, I know nothing of books; and yet I believe, upon a land-carriage fishery, a Stamp-Act, or an Indian Jaghire, I can talk my two hours without feeling the want of them."*

Lord North, whatever might be his opinion as to many points of Burke's proposal, knew the strength of the popular current by which it was borne onwards, and was too well skilled in Parliamentary tactics to oppose it point-blank. On the contrary, he gave every facility for the introduction of Burke's first Bill (Burke had five in all), and it was presented with only one dissentient voice—that of Lord George Gordon. In Committee, however, a great variety of objections were started and of difficulties shown. Several of Burke's adherents began to feel that it was no such easy matter as they had thought, with due regard to vested interests, to new-model an old and complicated system. The House, by degrees, grew weary of the subject; and at length, towards the close of the Session, the Bill was demolished by a side-blow in Committee, Burke declaring, however,

* The "Goodnatured Man," act ii. There is also something most true to nature in Mr. Lofty's answer to the lady who had quoted to him Waller the poet. "Waller, Waller, is he of the House?"

that he should not fail to bring forward the same measure in the course of the next year.

It is greatly to the honour of Burke's integrity and firmness, considering the vehement popular outcry at the time, that, while proposing to restrain and regulate the future Pension List, he forbore — and he gave his reasons for forbearing — to resume or curtail, or lay any tax upon, the pensions already granted. This defect (for so it might seem to heated partisans) was supplied by several auxiliary or rival motions. Colonel Barré thundered against the men of overgrown wealth still permitted to hold unreduced places of vast emolument, and rioting in the Army Extraordinaries. On another day, he said, he should propose a Commission of Accounts. But Lord North, dexterously coinciding in this proposal, drew the appointment of the Commission, greatly to Barré's indignation, into his own hands. Sir George Savile moved that the names at least of the holders of all pensions for life, or patent places, should be laid before the House. His motion was supported by Fox with his now customary eloquence and powers of both argument and ridicule, but was resisted by Lord North. "To expose," said the Minister, "the necessities of ancient and noble families to the prying eye of malignant curiosity — to hold up the man who has a pension to the envy and detraction of him who hates him because he has none — to prepare a feast for party writers, and furnish materials for magazines and newspapers which would magnify and misrepresent every circumstance, — these are the bad effects; but I know of no good ones that could result from such indiscriminate exposure, since the Civil List money was granted freely, and without restriction or control, to the poison of the King."*

Able speeches to the same effect were delivered by two other members of the Government — by the Lord Advocate, Henry Dundas, and by Wedderburn, the Attorney-General. Their defence provoked from

* Debates in the Commons, February 15. and 21. 1780. From a subsequent discussion in the Lords (Parl. Hist., vol. xxi. p. 229.) we may gather that, as the Pension List then stood, the Scottish Peers, or their family connections, were suspected to have obtained the lion's share of it.

Colonel Barré (besides the lie direct which he gave to Wedderburn) a most unworthy sarcasm, quite in accordance, however, with the illiberal spirit of that time. Not one Englishman, he said, dares to stand forth in defence of the Minister: he has only two Scots! Lord North had moved an amendment, limiting the pensions to all pensions "payable at the Exchequer," so as to exempt those depending solely upon the Civil List; but even thus he prevailed in the division by a majority of only two votes.

Speaking on the same side, and in the same debates, Lord Nugent had exclaimed, "There are many Lady Bridgets, Lady Marys, and Lady Jennys who would be much hurt at having their names entered in our proceedings as pensioners of State." In this lighter strain Lord Nugent scarcely did justice to his own opinions. When in 1838 the Pension List was thoroughly sifted by a Committee of the House of Commons, and the cause of every pension, with the circumstances of the holder, so far as they could be traced, were made public to the world, there were found undoubtedly some cases of ladies in which high birth combined with poverty had been held as sufficient recommendations to the Royal Bounty. But cases are far more numerous of ladies for whom a pittance had been worthily earned by the public service of a kinsman, and who were not always protected by that pittance from severe distress. No instance of the kind can be stronger than that of the Hon. General Carey, a descendant of the heroic Falkland, who in this very year, 1780, was killed at the taking of St. Lucia from the French, leaving behind him an infant family of daughters. To each of these daughters a yearly pension of 80*l.* was granted by the King. Two of them survived till the Pension List inquiry of 1838, when the one, a lady then sixty-seven years of age, and belonging, as she says, to "that despised and degraded class called pensioners," found it requisite to write to the Chancellor of the Exchequer, in vindication of their claims. She first points out how ill, even in a worldly sense, their pensions had atoned for a father's early care; how they had come forth as orphans without a friend or protector, and since had struggled on "in something nearly allied

"to want.—I must not, however," she adds, "allow this melancholy enumeration to make me forget that which I must ever remember with gratitude, namely, that this pension, which in these dear times furnishes me with little more than daily bread, and obliges me, to obtain that, to live in banishment, was yet the means of procuring me that religious and solid education adapted to my fortunes, which has enabled me to bear up against all the sorrows of them. I have, indeed, enjoyed it long—perhaps the gentlemen of the Committee will think too long—but that has been the will of God, and not my fault; and it is true that, as it is my only resource, I should be glad to retain it if I can be allowed so to do with honour and without reproach, and to receive it with that dignified thankfulness with which the daughter of a usefully brave British officer may accept a national testimony of her father's deserts; but if this cannot be, and his services are considered as having been long remunerated, why, then, Sir, I can cheerfully resign that which I shall hope may lessen the distress of some younger and weaker child of affliction; and being, by God's blessing, able, both in body and mind, to seek my own subsistence in the education of the children of some more fortunate family, I may, perhaps, find an answer to the quarterly question of my mind whether such wages as I should then receive for my honest service were not more honourable than the degrading reception of a pension so grudgingly bestowed."*

The personal tendency of many of the questions discussed in the Session of 1780 may be traced in the personal conflicts that they provoked. An altercation between Mr. Fox and another member of Parliament, Mr. William Adam, was followed by a duel, in which Mr. Fox was slightly wounded. Some months later, in the Lords, the Earl of Shelburne thought proper to complain that the command of one of the new-raised regiments had been bestowed on a mere civilian member of Parliament, Mr. Fallaxton; and that gentleman having

* This touching and beautiful letter is dated Vienna, January 11. 1838. It is printed at length in the proceedings of the Committee, p. 6. (Parl. Papers.)

formerly been attached to the British embassy at Paris, Lord Shelburne applied to him, in contempt, the French term *commis*. Colonel Fullarton, with rather too much of the fire of his new profession, not only retaliated upon Lord Shelburne in the Lower House, but fought him in Hyde Park; on which occasion the noble Peer was shot, though not dangerously, in the body. With good reason might Sir James Lowther take up the subject that same evening in the Commons. If, he said, there are to be these constant appeals to arms, the Parliament of England will become no better than a Polish Diet. Yet certainly such meetings were not uncongenial to the temper of that time. We find the strongest arguments in their defence alleged on Dr. Johnson's high authority.* We find even Sir James Lowther, in reproving them, careful to explain that he did so only when they trench'd on freedom of debate. He had himself, he said, been more than once engaged in conflicts of that nature upon other grounds, and whenever he was called upon he trusted he should show himself ready. No disapprobation of the duel as such was expressed by the Corresponding Committees, though some of them were eager to insinuate that Lord Shelburne, from his zeal in their behalf, had been singled out for vengeance by the retainers of the Government.

Another altercation of that period might have led no less to conflict but for the graver and more nearly judicial character of one of the parties concerned. There had been for some time a growing alienation between the Court and the Speaker of the House of Commons, Sir Fletcher Norton; but when the rumour rose, that applications had been made to the Chief Justice (De Grey) to retire, so that the Attorney-General might be seated in his place, Norton could no longer restrain himself. He took occasion, when the House was in Committee on Burke's Bill for Economical Reform, to complain that this very post of Chief Justice had been held out to him by the

* Life by Boswell, under the dates of April 10. 1772, and April 19. 1773. Foote, at the same period, writing with the exaggeration which we might expect from him, makes his Major of Militia, when aggrieved, exclaim. "I will get our Chaplain to pen me a challenge!" (The Mayor of Garratt, act ii.)

Duke of Grafton as an inducement to accept meanwhile the Speaker's chair. It was enough for Lord North to answer coldly, that he was not bound by a promise of his predecessor. He likewise disclaimed all knowledge of any such negotiation with the Chief Justice as the Speaker had supposed. But Wedderburn, stung at Sir Fletcher's mention of his name, poured upon him, in reply, with most powerful effect, a torrent of wit and invective. He reminded the House, that the Speaker had not disdained to accept, in requital, nay, in anticipation, of his services, one of the richest of the sinecures—a Chief Justiceship in Eyre. He added, and surely with much force and truth, "When the Right Honourable gentleman quitted Westminster Hall to slide first into the enjoyment of a great sinecure,—and afterwards to be exalted to the high situation he still holds, he left behind him many who continued to labour with industry and assiduity in hopes that the line of preferment would be open to them. It is rather hard, therefore, that the Right Honourable gentleman should throw his mantle over those whom he has left to toil behind him, and secure to himself an exclusive claim to return to the profession, not for the purpose of joining in the toil of it, but merely to enjoy those posts of dignity and honour which other men in the daily routine of business had laboured to merit, and expected in their turn to receive."*

The cry for Economical Reform, which had taken its rise in the distresses of the country, drifted more and more, as impelled by party spirit towards distrust of the Crown. See, it was exclaimed, both in and out of Parliament, how vast the influence, how irresponsible the power, which that army of inferior placemen can command! Mr. John Crewe, member for Cheshire, brought in a Bill which had once been Mr. Dowdeswell's, to disable revenue-officers from voting at elections; he was supported both by Fox and Conway; but on the motion

* See the *Parl. Hist.*, vol. xxi. p. 274. and Lord Campbell's *Lives of the Chancellors*, vol. vi. p. 136.; the last containing an account of Wedderburn's speech as derived from the first Lord Melville.

that "the Bill be now committed," he found himself in a minority. Sir Philip Jennings Clerke renewed his motion of a former year, to exclude contractors from the House of Commons, unless their contracts were obtained by a public bidding. His Bill passed the Commons almost unanimously; but in the Upper House, the active exertions and the able speeches of Lord Chief Justice Mansfield and Lord Chancellor Thurlow procured its rejection. Activity likewise, though not ability, might on that occasion be justly ascribed to Lord Hillsborough. Certain it is, that at no other period of our annals, did the abuses of the contract system flourish in such rank luxuriance. At no other period were they so highly detrimental to the public service. Thus, to give only one slight instance, Colonel Simcoe, a most active officer in our later American campaigns, speaking of this very year, 1780, complains of the "miserable contract hats which had been sent from England."* Even now, after so much has been achieved by way both of safeguard and reform, we may sometimes still feel the truth of that caustic remark made by Pepys two centuries ago:—"I see it is impossible for the King to have things done as cheap as other men!"†

It was on the 6th of April that the rising jealousy of the executive power was, both in and out of Parliament, most conspicuously shown. There was held that afternoon a meeting of the people of Westminster, where Fox appeared and delivered an harangue, supported by his two friends, the Dukes of Portland and of Devonshire. At the request of the Middlesex magistrates, and from the apprehensions of some popular disturbance, a body of troops had been drawn out and kept ready in the neighbourhood of Westminster Hall. How far from ill-founded were those apprehensions was abundantly proved by the events in London, only a few weeks afterwards. But meanwhile the timidity, as it was termed, of the Middlesex magistrates exposed them to most vehement invectives from the Opposition chiefs. Burke, in the House of Commons, called them "reptiles,"—the mere

* Journal of the Queen's Rangers, by Colonel Simcoe, p. 92.

† Pepys's Diary, July 21. 1662.

"scum of the earth." "If," cried Fox, "a set of men are to be let loose on the Constitutional meetings of the people, then all who go to such meetings must go armed!"

Within the House the business of the day was begun by the presentations of further petitions in favour of Economical Reform—petitions so many and so large, that, according to the strong expression of a contemporary writer, they seemed, not so much to cover, as to bury the table.* Then, with the House in Committee, Dunning rose. Clearly, boldly, and with the utmost bitterness of language, he reviewed the conduct of the Ministers with regard to Burke's great measure of reform: at first, he said, they had received it with a show of candour, and a kind of mock approbation, but they had afterwards declared themselves fundamentally opposed to every one of its leading objects. Other measures of that Session, tending to the same end, had been in like manner either defeated or eluded. What, then, remains, said Dunning, but for the House to bind itself, and satisfy the public by putting forth a clear simple proposition, and voting the words which he concluded with moving:—"That it is the opinion of this Committee, that the influence of the Crown has increased, is increasing, and ought to be diminished."

Sir Fletcher Norton, full of spleen against Lord North, eagerly availed himself of the Speaker's privilege of speaking in Committee, and strongly supported Mr. Dunning's Resolution. So far did his rancour overpower his judgment, that we find him insist on a point most unseemly for a Speaker to urge,—that if Honourable Members should now vote the petitions of the people unfounded, he wished them much joy of going down to their constituents with that opinion. Lord North, in reply, spoke with his usual talent, though scarcely with his usual temper. He reminded the House, as he might with perfect truth, that he had never insinuated that his abilities were equal to his post, and had constantly declared himself ready to resign it; but still, he said, he had maintained himself, in spite of the exertions of those

who had formerly contended against the rights of the people, and who were now pursuing measures likely to overturn the Constitution.

In the course of this arduous debate, a diversion in favour of the Government was attempted by one of its ablest members—the Lord Advocate. First, he moved that the Chairman should leave the Chair. But that motion, being understood as stifling the inquiry, was ill-received, and, by permission of the House, withdrawn. Next, he proposed to add, as an amendment to the original motion, the opening words, “it is now necessary to declare.” Fox, as the Opposition leader, stated his acquiescence in the suggestion, and the motion of Dunning was put to the House in that amended form. Still, however, the Lord Advocate retained the liberty of voting, and he did vote, against the whole motion; while he had succeeded in his object, namely, to convert, as far as possible, a general averment into a temporary declaration, which might, at some future period, be retracted or disowned.

Mr. Dunning and his friends had certainly some considerable instances to allege in support of their position. But they wholly overlooked the fact that if, on the one side, the influence of the Crown had been augmenting, there was, on the other, at least an equal relaxation of its prerogative. It is laid down as beyond all dispute, by a most judicious and impartial historian of our own time, that ever since the Revolution, there has been a systematic diminution of the reigning prince's control.* In all probability, however, such considerations decided but few votes. Many more were swayed by the argument at which the Speaker had so unscrupulously glanced, that the Parliament was now near-closing the sixth year of its existence, and must, at no distant period, be dissolved. Under these impressions, the Resolution of Dunning was carried against the Government by a majority of eighteen, the numbers being 233 and 215. It is worthy of note that, of all the English county members, no more than nine appear in the lists of the minority.

* Hallam's *Constit. Hist.*, vol. iii. p. 395.

His first Resolution being thus carried, Dunning forthwith proceeded to move a second, purporting that the House had the full right to correct any abuses in the Civil List Revenue. A third Resolution was added by Thomas Pitt, to the effect that it was their duty to redress, without delay, the grievances complained of in the petitions of the people. These latter declarations being likewise affirmed in spite of the efforts of Lord North, Fox, at past one o'clock in the morning, moved that all three should be immediately reported to the House. With good reason might Lord North protest against that course, as "violent, arbitrary, and unusual;" but Fox persisting as though desirous to leave the House no leisure for reflection, and the Government not venturing to try a second division, the Report was brought up and the House adjourned.

Exulting in his victory, Dunning was eager to pursue it. When next the Committee met, he brought forward other motions more in detail, respecting the Civil List and the right of certain members of the Household to sit in Parliament. On the division, however, he saw his numbers decrease, and they were still further lessened after an adjournment of ten days, which the Speaker's illness rendered necessary. The old supporters of Lord North, who had voted against him on the 6th of April, began to think that they had done enough for their own popularity at the General Election. They now paid less regard to their constituents and more to their convictions; and thus the current of their votes returned to its accustomed channel. When Dunning moved an Address, requesting the King not to dissolve the Parliament, nor prorogue the Session, until proper measures had been taken to diminish the influence of the Crown, he found himself defeated in a full house by a majority of 51; another motion by Serjeant Adair, for withholding the Supplies until after the redress of grievances, was negatived without debate; and finally, on the 26th of May, when the House was again in Committee on Petitions, a technical motion that the Chairman should leave the Chair was carried against Dunning by a majority of 43. Thus, the important Resolutions of the 6th of April remained, as it were, alone upon the Journals; all their

expected consequences, all the steps requisite to give them force and validity, having been rejected by the House. Deep was the disappointment and loud the clamour of the Opposition chiefs. Even their vocabulary of invective, though most ample and well tried, scarcely sufficed to their zeal. "It is shameful, it is base, it is unmanly, it is treacherous," cried Fox. On the other hand, Lord North, who had never lost his good humour since his defeat, showed himself no less composed and equable at his return of fortune.

But within a few days of the close of these transactions, they were quite forgotten in a train—new and wholly unlooked for—of affairs. Then of a sudden, like a meteor rising from the foulest marshes, appeared those fearful riots, to which the most rank intolerance gave origin, and Lord George Gordon a name. Then the midnight sky of London was reddened with incendiary fires, and her streets resounded to the cry of an infuriated mob; then our best and wisest statesmen had to tremble, not only for their lives, but for their hearths and homes; then for once in our annals, the powers of Government, and order seemed to quail and succumb before the populace of the capital in arms.

In a former chapter it has been already shown how the Protestant Associations, spreading from Scotland to England, and selecting Lord George Gordon as their common chief, continued, through the year 1779, to gather strength and numbers.* The conduct of Lord George showed that he was well entitled to his post of pre-eminence in folly. During the Session of 1780, he made many speeches in the House of Commons, always marked by ignorant fanaticism, and often by low buffoonery. Thus, on one occasion, we find him call Lord Nugent "the old rat of the Constitution."† Here his meaning seems not quite clear, nor is it of the least importance to discover; but it may serve for a sample of his style. Early in the year, he had obtained an audience of the King, and read out to his Majesty page after page of an Irish pamphlet, so long as the daylight

* See vol. i. pp. 239. and 261.

† Parl. Hist. vol. xxi. p. 407.

lasted.* He suspected, or at least he was wont to think, that George the Third was a Roman Catholic at heart. His next object was to obtain popular petitions, complaining of the recent relaxation in the Penal Laws.

It had been hoped, in the course of the last year, that some indulgence to the Protestant Dissenters might be the best means to lessen or divert their rancour against the Roman Catholics, and to convince them that no exclusive favour was intended to these last. With such views nearly the same measure of Relief from Subscription, which the Lords had rejected by a large majority in 1772, and again in 1778, passed their House in 1779, when transmitted from the Commons, and, it is said, without debate.† The indulgence was accepted, but the rancour was not removed. This plainly appeared from the great popular support with which even the wildest projects of Lord George Gordon were received. The petition which he wished to obtain from London was at this time the object of his especial care. It was invited and urged on in every manner by public advertisements and by personal entreaties. It was for several weeks in circulation, and received many thousand signatures. To give it greater force and effect Lord George, towards the close of May, convened a meeting of the Protestant Association in Coachmakers' Hall. There, after a long speech, and in a most crowded room, he gave notice that he would present the petition to the House of Commons on the 2nd of June. Resolutions were passed that the whole body of the Association and their friends would, on that day, assemble in St. George's Fields, with blue cockades in their hats to distinguish all true Protestants from their foes. Still further to incite them Lord George added that if the assemblage did not amount to 20,000 he would not present the petition.

Accordingly on Friday the 2nd of June, and at ten o'clock, in the morning, St. George's Fields were thronged with blue cockades. They were computed at

* H. Walpole to Lady Greville, January 29, 1780.

† Parl. Hist. vol. xx. p. 322. See also in the Appendix to my fifth volume, a letter from Dr. Price to Lord Chatham, dated March 11, 1773.

50,000 or 60,000, and by some persons even at 100,000 men. The love of frolic and of staring had certainly brought many new accessions to their ranks. Appearing in the midst and welcomed by their enthusiastic cheers, Lord George Gordon, in the first place, indulged them with another of his silly speeches. Next, they were marshalled in separate bands, the main body marching over London Bridge and through Temple Bar to the Houses of Parliament. In this procession they walked six abreast, and in their van was carried their great petition, containing, it was said, no less than 120,000 signatures or marks.

London, at that period, was far from yet possessing the sturdy and disciplined police which now, on any chance of riot, or even of mere crowd and pressure, lines our streets and squares. There were only the parish beadle, and the so-called watchmen of the night, for the most part feeble old men, frequently knocked down by the revellers, and scoffed at by the playwrights, of the age. In the face of that mighty array so long previously announced, which Lord George Gordon was leading to Whitehall, no measure of precaution had been taken by the Government. They had neither sworn in any special constables nor stationed any soldiers. It must be owned, however, that the reproaches on that score came with no good grace from the lips of the Opposition chiefs, who had so lately poured forth their loudest clamours, in the apprehension of some tumult at the Westminster meeting, a body of troops had been kept ready.

Finding no obstruction to their progress, the blue cockades advanced to Palace Yard and took possession of the open space some time before the two Houses met, as they did later in the afternoon. Then, with only a few door-keepers and messengers between them and some

* London Courant, July 6, 1780. "The newspaper thinks fit to add, 'It was a glorious and most affecting spectacle to see such numbers of our fellow-citizens assembling in the cause of Protestantism, which our Protestant Ministers have so meanly and infamously deserted.' But by the next publication (Monday, June 5,) the Editor's tone had wholly changed. 'What melancholy forebodings must not the outrage and insult,' &c. &c.

of the principal objects of their fury, they were not long in learning the dangerous secret of their strength. The Lords had been summoned for that day, to hear a motion from the Duke of Richmond, in favour of annual Parliaments and unrestricted suffrage. Lord Chancellor Thurlow was ill and at Tunbridge, and the Earl of Mansfield had undertaken to preside in his place. But as it chanced Lord Mansfield was then most unpopular with the Protestant Associates, having not long since charged a jury to acquit a Roman Catholic priest, who was brought before him charged with the crime of celebrating Mass. Thus, no sooner did his carriage appear than it was assailed and its windows broken, while the venerable Judge, the object of the fiercest execrations as "a notorious Papist," made his way into the House with great difficulty, and on entering, could not conceal his torn robe and his disshevelled wig. He took his seat upon the woollen sack pale and quivering.* The Archbishop of York's lawn sleeves were torn off and flung in his face. The Bishop of Lincoln, disliked as a brother of Lord Thurlow, fared still worse; his carriage was demolished, while the prelate, half fainting, sought refuge in an adjacent house, from which, on recovery

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three pages inserted. "A country with great pride, that on this occasion the Law Lord showed much more courage than any other member of the House, spiritual or temporal."

cry arose among the multitude that the person thus attired must be a Jesuit and the Duke's confessor; a conclusion, it may fairly be owned, not at all more unreasonable than many others they had formed. On the strength of this, their discriminating judgment, His Grace was forced from his carriage, and robbed of his watch and purse.

Still, however, as the Peers by degrees came in, the business of the House in regular course proceeded. Prayers were read, some formal Bills were advanced a stage, and the Duke of Richmond then began to state his reasons for thinking that, under present circumstance, political powers might safely be entrusted to the lowest orders of the people. His Grace was still speaking when Lord Montfort burst into the House, and broke through his harangue. Lord Montfort said that he felt bound to acquaint their Lordships of the perilous situation in which, at that very moment, stood one of their own members; he meant Lord Boston, whom the mob had dragged out of his coach, and were cruelly maltreating. "At this instant," says an eye-witness, "it is hardly possible to conceive a more grotesque appearance than the House exhibited. Some of their Lordships with their hair about their shoulders; others smeared with dirt; most of them as pale as the ghost in Hamlet; and all of them standing up in their several places, and speaking at the same instant." One Lord proposing to send for the Guards, another for the Justices or Civil Magistrates, many crying out, Adjourn without! while the skies resounded with the hurrahs, shoutings, or hootings "and hissings in Palace Yard! This scene of unprecedented alarm continued for about half an hour."*

It was proposed by Lord Trenchard that the Peers should go forth as a body, and attempt the rescue of Lord Boston. "This proposal," says an eye-witness, "was rather too slowly for its object, when Lord Boston himself came in, with his hair dishevelled and his clothes covered with hair-powder. He had been exposed to especial danger, through a wholly unobscured suggestion from

* Reprinted in the *Fort. Mag.* vol. vi. p. 662. In the *Lords' Journals* of that day appears the following entry: "Notice was taken of a tumultuous assembly," &c.

some persons in the crowd, that he was a Roman Catholic; upon which the multitude, with loud imprecations had threatened to put the sign of the Cross upon his forehead. But he had the skill to engage some of the ring-leaders in a controversy on the question whether the Pope be Antichrist; and while they were eagerly discussing that favourite point, he contrived to slip through them. After such alarms, however, the Peers did not resume the original debate. They summoned to the Bar two of the Middlesex Magistrates, who declared that they had received no orders from the Government, and that, with all their exertions since the beginning of the tumult, they had only been able to collect six constables. Finally, at eight o'clock, the House adjourned till the morrow; and the Peers, favoured by the dusk, returned home on foot, in hackney carriages, with no further insult or obstruction.

The members of the Commons, as less conspicuous in their equipages than the Peers, were not so much molested in passing to their House. But when once assembled, their danger was the greater, since the infuriated multitude, finding no resistance, burst into and kept possession of the lobby. Here they raised loud shouts of "No Popery! No Popery!" and "Repeal! Repeal!"* Meanwhile Lord George Gordon, seconded by Alderman Bl, was presenting their great Protestant petition, and moving that the House should consider it in Committee forthwith. On the other side it was proposed that this Committee should be deferred until Tuesday, the 6th. When, however, upon this point a division was demanded, it was found to be unworkable. Neither the Ayes nor the Noes could be taken, through, as was the lobby with strangers, and tumult. The Sergeant-at-Arms declared himself to be obliged to stop the debates. Lord George endeavoured to rally the courage of his friends by showing himself at the top of the gallery-stairs, and making several harangues, which they resorted to in the lobby. He exhorted them to persevere; and told them, from time to time, the names of the members who

* Evidence of *James O'Connell*, the door-keeper. (*State Tr* vol. XXI. p. 529.)

were speaking against them. "There is Mr. Burke," he said, "the member for Bristol;" and, soon afterwards, "Do you know that Lord North calls you a mob?" Thus, their fury increasing, the House, at intervals, resounded with their cries of "No Popery!" and their violent knocks at the door. General Conway and Lord Frederick Campbell, that same evening at supper, said there was a moment when they thought they must have opened the doors, and fought their way out sword in hand.

Lord North, however, at this crisis showed great firmness, animating the resolution of the House by his unperturbed demeanour, but sending privately, and in all haste, for a party of the Guards. Other members made it a personal matter with Lord George. Colonel Holroyd told him that he had hitherto ascribed his conduct to insanity; but now saw that there was more of malice than of madness in it; and that, if he again attempted to address the rioters, he, Colonel Holroyd, would immediately move for his commitment to Newgate. Colonel Murray, one of Lord George's kinsmen, used still bolder language:—"My Lord George, do you really mean to bring your rascally adherents into the House of Commons? If you do, the first man of them that enters I will plunge my sword, not into his body, but into yours!" Lord George appears to have been daunted. Certainly, at least, he was silenced. Indeed, in one part of the evening, he quietly went up to the eating-room, where he threw himself into a chair and fell asleep, or nearly so, while listening to some excellent admonitions from Mr. Bowen, the Chaplain of the House.*

Failing the incitements of Lord George, the crowd within the lobby grew less fierce. Out of doors, moreover, great exertions were making to allay the storm. Lord Mahon, who was known to many of the people as a recent candidate for Westminster, harangued, then from the balcony of a coffee-house, and is said to have done good service to the cause of law and order.†. In

* Evidence, at his trial, of the Rev. Thomas Bowen. (State Trials, vol. xxi. p. 525.)

† "Lord Mahon counteracted the incendiary, and chiefly contri-
buted by his harangues to conjure down the tempest." (H. Walpole to Mason, June 4. 1780. See also his Letters to Lady

this manner time was gained, until towards nine o'clock, when an active Middlesex Justice, Mr. Addington, appeared with a party of Horse Guards. Mr. Addington told the people in the streets, that he meant them no harm, and that the soldiers should retire if they would quietly disperse, which many hundreds of them did accordingly, first giving the Magistrate three cheers. A party of the Foot Guards was also drawn up in the Court of Requests, and the lobby was now cleared; thus, at length, enabling the House of Commons to divide. Only eight members were found willing to support Lord George in his ignominious proposal for immediate deliberation, at the bidding and in the presence of the mob. Against that proposal 194 votes, including tellers, were recorded; and the House was then adjourned until the Tuesday following.

With the adjournment of both Houses, and the dispersion of the crowd in Palace-Yard, it was imagined that the difficulties of the day had closed. The magistrates returned home, and sent away the soldiers. Unhappily, several parties of the rioters were intent on further mischief. Repairing to the two Roman Catholic chapels of the Sardinian and Bavarian Ministers in Lincoln's Inn Fields and in Warwick Street — chapels which existed by the faith of treaties, and were not at all connected with the Acts of 1778 — they set them in flames. Engines were sent for, but the mob prevented them from playing; while the benches from the Sardinian chapel, being flung into the street, afforded the materials for a bonfire, as a token of the public exultation. At length the soldier came — too late to prevent the havoc, in time only to seize and to secure thirteen of the rioters.

Next morning the town was, to all appearance, perfectly tranquil. The House of Lords met in the forenoon, and on the motion of Earl Bathurst, agreed to an Address

Ossory, vol. ii. p. 415, ed. 1848.) One of Lord Mahon's qualifications for addressing a large crowd with effect is satirically glanced at in the *Rolliad* :—

"Mahon outroaring torrents in their force,

"Bankes the precise, and Gaunt Wilberforce!"

for prosecuting the authors and abettors of the recent outrages. The angry taunts that followed between the Government and Opposition members, may be readily conceived and need not be detailed. But it is well worthy of note, with how much of political foresight and sagacity Lord Shelburne suggested the idea of a new police. "Let their Lordships," he said, "at least those who are in administration, recollect what the police of France is; let them examine its good, and not be blind to its evil. They would find its construction excellent: its use and direction abominable. Let them embrace the one, and shun the other."

Notwithstanding the general and confident belief that the disturbances were over, they recommenced, in a slight degree, that very evening in Moorfields. On the next afternoon, that is, on Sunday the 4th, they became far more serious in the same quarter. Unhappily Kennett, the Lord Mayor, was, as Wilkes afterwards complained, a man wholly wanting in energy and firmness. The first outrages within his jurisdiction being unchecked and almost unnoticed, tended to give rise to many more. Again assembling in large bodies, the mob attacked both the chapels and the dwelling-houses of the Roman Catholics in and about Moorfields. The houses they stripped of the furniture, and the chapels of the altars, pulpits, pews, and benches, all which served to make bonfires in the streets.

On the ensuing afternoon, that is, on Monday the 5th of June, a Drawing Room had been appointed at St. James's, in celebration of the King's Birthday. Previous to the Drawing Room a Privy Council was held, at which the riots were discussed. But as yet they were deemed of so slight importance that no one measure was taken with regard to them, beyond a Proclamation offering a reward of 500*l.* for a discovery of the persons concerned in setting fire to the Sardinian and Bavarian chapels. Even Lord Mansfield, who had not only seen, but felt, the fury of the mob, fell into the same error of underrating it. When in the course of this day Mr. Strahan, the printer, who had also been insulted, called upon his Lordship to express his fears from the licen-

tiousness of the populace, the Chief Justice, we are told, treated it as a very slight irregularity.*

That delusion, however, was dispelled by the events of the same day. The blue cockades, growing bolder and bolder by indulgence, mustered in high spirits and with increasing numbers. While some parties proceeded to destroy the Romanist chapels in Wapping and East Smithfield, others broke open and plundered the shops and houses of Mr. Rainsforth and Mr. Maberly, two tradesmen who had given evidence against the rioters secured on Friday night. But the principal object of attack was the house of Sir George Savile, obnoxious as the author of the first relaxation in the Penal Code. Savile House, which stood in Leicester Fields, was accordingly carried, as it were, by storm, and given up to pillage. Some of the furniture derived from the chapels or the private dwellings, was, previously to its being burned in the adjacent fields, dragged in triumph and displayed through Welbeck Street, before the house of Lord George Gordon. That foolish young fanatic now began to shrink from the results of his own rashness. In the name of his Protestant Association he put forth a hand-bill, disavowing all share in the riots; but he soon found how far easier it was to raise than to allay the storm.

By this time the alarm had spread far and wide. Burke, who had most zealously supported Savile in the good work of religious toleration, found it requisite, with his family, to take refuge beneath the roof of his friend General Burgoyne. Throughout these troubles, and amidst all the anxious scenes of the next day, his demeanour was courageous and composed, and his wife showed herself not unworthy such a husband. "Jane," thus writes their brother Mr. Richard Burke, "Jane has the firmness and sweetness of an angel; but why do I say an angel?—of a woman!"†

On Tuesday the 6th, according to adjournment both Houses met. A detachment of Foot Guards had been ranged in Westminster Hall, and in great measure over-

* Dr. Johnson to Mrs. Thrale, June 9, 1780. The passages from these letters, relating to the riots, are inserted in Boswell's Life.

† See Burke's Correspondence, vol. ii. p. 351.

awed the mob; nevertheless, one of the Ministers, Lord Stormont, was slightly wounded, and his carriage altogether demolished. The Peers, after a short discussion, adjourned. In the Commons, notwithstanding the alarms of personal violence, there mustered about 200 members. Lord George Gordon was there as before, decked with a blue cockade. Upon this an independent member of high spirit, Colonel Herber, soon afterwards raised to the peerage as Lord Porchester, declared that he could not sit and vote in that House whilst he saw a Noble Lord in it with the ensign of riot in his hat; and he threatened that, if his Lordship would not take it out, he would walk across the House and do it for him. Lord George with rather tame submission, or only yielding, as he said, to the entreaties of his friends, put the obnoxious symbol in his pocket. Neither Savile, nor yet Burke, was absent from his place. Burke, on his way down, had been surrounded by the mob, and was for some time in their hands. He did not conceal his name, nor yet dissemble his sentiments, but remonstrated with them, and they, honouring his firmness, let him go. "I even found," he says, "friends and well-wishers among the blue cockades." Of his subsequent speech that day in Parliament, he adds: "I do not think I have ever, on any occasion, seemed to affect the House more forcibly. However, such was the confusion that they could not be kept from coming to a Resolution, which I thought unbecoming and pusillanimous; which was, that we should take that flagitious petition which came from that base gang called the Protestant Association, into our serious consideration. I am now glad that we did so; for if we had refused it, the subsequent ravages would have been charged upon our obstinacy." The Resolution to which Burke thus objects, had been moved by General Conway. It went no further than to pledge the House to consider the petitions "as soon as the tumults subside, which are now subsisting." With this promise the Commons adjourned.

* Letter to R. Shackleton, June 13, 1780. (Corresp. vol. ii. p. 354.)

While the Houses were still sitting, a portion of the mob attacked the official residence of Lord North in Downing Street. It was saved by the timely appearance of a party of soldiers. But during that afternoon, and the whole of Wednesday the 7th, the outrages rose to a far higher pitch than they had yet attained. It might be said, with but slight exaggeration, that for two days the rabble held dominion in the town. It might be said in the eloquent words of Gibbon, an eye-witness to these proceedings, that "forty thousand Puritans, such as they might be in the time of Cromwell, have started out of their graves." In truth, however, within these two days the character of the mob was greatly changed. Many of the heated, but honest, zealots of the Protestant Association had withdrawn. Their places had been filled, and more than filled, by fiercer spirits; by men who thirsted for plunder, and by men who aimed at revolution. In many cases they now bore, not only blue cockades in their hats, but also oaken cudgels in their hands. Flinging aside all future reliance on their silly tool Lord George, they wore, it was clear, directed by secret, but daring, leaders of their own. Still, however, "No Popery" was their cry, and in the main their motive; it was the Reformed Faith that gave a plea for some of the worst crimes which it condemns!

On the Tuesday afternoon, about six o'clock, a vast multitude appeared in front of Newgate, shouting aloud for the freedom of their brother rioters committed on the Friday night. Mr. Akerman, the keeper, firmly refused to betray his duty or deliver the prisoners; upon which his house was attacked and presently in flames. The wines and spirits in his cellar supplied, and not in vain, opportunity for most brutal drunkenness. Meanwhile, the yells of the mob without the prison, were answered by the wild cry of the felons from within; some of these in hope of liberty, others in dread of conflagration. So strong was the prison itself that it might have been defended, at least against the rabble, by a mere handful of resolute men; such men, however, were wholly wanting

at that place and time. Sledge-hammers and pickaxes were plied with slight effect against the iron-studded doors; but they were set on fire by means of Mr. Akerman's furniture, which was drawn out and piled close upon them. The flames, also, from Mr. Akerman's house quickly spread to the chapel, and from the chapel to the cells, and made a gap for the mob to enter; thus, ere long, they were in riotous possession of the prison. All the prisoners, to the number of three hundred, comprising four under sentence of death and ordered for execution on the Thursday morning, were released. No attempts were made to check, and many to extend, the flames. Thus was Newgate, at that time the strongest, and as might have been supposed securest, of all our English gaols, which had lately been rebuilt at a charge of no less than 140,000*l.*, larded over that night by a frantic populace, and reduced to a smouldering ruin. Within a few hours, there was nothing left of the stately edifice, beyond some bare stone walls too thick and massy for the force of fire to bring down.

On the same Tuesday evening, other detachments of the mob in like manner broke open the new gaol at Clerkenwell, and set free the prisoners. The dwellings of three active magistrates, Mr. Hyde, Mr. Cox, and Sir John Fielding, were also attacked and gutted by the rioters. In many districts the inhabitants found themselves compelled by threats to illuminate their houses. But far fiercer was the gang, which, towards midnight, gathered before the house of Lord Mansfield in Bloomsbury Square. Loud yells were raised against the Chief Justice, who with Lady Mansfield had barely time to escape by a back-door, and take refuge in the house of a friend. Directly afterwards the mob poured in, carrying havoc and destruction through all the stately rooms. They had brought with them torches and combustibles, and kindled a fire in the street below, which they fed not only with the furniture and hangings, but with the pictures, volumes, and papers, which they tore down and threw over from the windows. Thus perished an excellent library, formed by one of the most accomplished scholars of his age; books enriched by the handwriting of Pope and Bolingbroke, and of his other literary

friends, or by his own notes upon the margin. Then was lost an invaluable collection of familiar letters which Lord Mansfield had been storing for well nigh half a century, as materials, if was said, for memoirs of his times. Yet amidst all this ferocious havoc well worthy of the Goths or Vandals, the leaders of the mob showed something of a higher spirit. They would not allow the valuables to be carried off as booty, declaring that they acted from principle, and not for plunder. One ragged incendiary was even seen to cast into the fire a costly piece of plate with an oath that it should never go in payment of Masses!*

Unhappily, the same scruples did not apply to wine. Lord Mansfield's cellar being forced open, its contents were freely distributed, and supplied the rioters with fresh incentives to their fury. Meanwhile, the flames, extending to the mansion, reduced it long ere morning to a bare and blackened shell. Strange as it may seem, all the outrages were committed in the hearing, and almost in the sight, of a detachment of the Foot Guards, which had arrived at nearly the commencement of the fray. But they had been restrained by the doubts which then prevailed, whether the troops had any legal right to fire upon the mob, unless a magistrate were present, first to read forth at full length all the provisions of the Riot Act. When a gentleman, a friend of Lord Mansfield, went to the officer in command, requiring him to enter the house and defend it, the officer replied that the Justices of the Peace had all run away, and that consequently he could or would do nothing.† When at length a magistrate was caught, and made to mumble through the clauses, the soldiers did advance and fire two volleys. It was then too late. The discharge might kill

* See Lord Campbell's *Lives of the Chief Justices*, vol. II p. 524. The lines of Cowper on this outrage, are perhaps among the most pleasing of his lesser poems. Well might he say of Lord Mansfield's books:

"Their pages tangled, burnt, and torn,

"That once was his alone;

"But now to come shall mourn

"The burning of his own!"

† Evidence of Sir Thomas Mills. (State Trials, vol. xxi p. 664.)

or maim some five or six poor drunken wretches, but could impress no salutary terror on the rest. They looked on without concern, some stupified and others maddened by their unwonted draughts of wine. Yet these were the very men who perhaps, a few hours before, might have slunk back in terror at the mere sight of a red coat. How forcibly do the events of that night illustrate what one of the principal sufferers by them, the Chief Justice, afterwards pronounced, that it is the highest humanity to check the infancy of tumults ! *

Thus did that night pass in conflagration and dismay. Next morning, Wednesday, the 7th of June, the conflagrations were arrested, but the dismay continued. The shops in most places were kept carefully closed. In many districts, the householders endeavoured to secure themselves by chalking "No Popery" on their doors, or hanging blue silk from their windows. Still more effectual, perhaps, was the precaution of paying money to several of the recent rioters, who made their rounds to claim it, walking singly, and three of them mere boys; but each armed with an iron bar, torn from the railings in front of Lord Mansfield's house. One fellow, mounted on horseback, refused, it was said, to take anything but gold. Yet amidst so much of horror there were not wanting, as usual, some points of ridicule. Thus, the Jews who lived in Houndsditch and Duke's Place, sharing in the common terror, wrote upon their shutters "This house is a true Protestant." In other places the rioters, with perfect coolness and deliberation, recommenced their havoc. Dr. Johnson, who walked with a friend to see the ruins of Newgate, observed, as he went by, "the Protestants" (for so he calls them), plundering the Sessions' House, at the Old Bailey. He adds: "There were not, I believe, a hundred; but they did their work at leisure, in full security, without sentinels and without trepidation, as men lawfully employed in full day." Not less striking are the ruins of another eyewitness to these scenes. "If one could in decency laugh,

* "I have more than once heard him say this," declared Lord Erskine on the trial of Thomas Walker in 1794. (See his Speeches, vol. iii. p. 34.)

"must not one laugh to see what I saw; a single boy, of fifteen years at most, in Queen Street, mounted on a paint-house, demolishing a house with great zeal, but much at his ease, and throwing the pieces to two boys still younger, who burnt them for their amusement, no one daring to obstruct them? Children are plundering at noon day the city of London!"*

In the course of this Wednesday two separate attempts were made upon the Bank of England. Here, however, a party of soldiers had been providently stationed; and the rioters were so far intimidated by the strength with which they beheld it guarded that their attacks were but feeble and soon desisted from. They were led on to the first by a brewer's servant, on horseback, who had decorated his horse with the chains of Newgate.† Elsewhere the mob met with more success. The King's Bench, the Fleet, the Marshalsea, and several other prisons were forced open, and the prisoners released. The toll-gates on Blackfriars Bridge were attacked and plundered of the money they contained. All these, and some other buildings, were then set on fire. As the night advanced the glare of conflagration might be seen to fill the sky from many parts. "The sight was dreadful," writes Dr. Johnson, and the number of the separate fires, all blazing at the same time, is computed at thirty-six. Happily this summer night was perfectly calm and serene, since the slightest wind might have stirred the flames, and reduced a great part of London to ashes. But the principal scene that night of conflagration, as of all tumult and horror, was Holborn. There the mob had burst open and set on fire the warehouses of Mr. Langdon, a Roman Catholic and a distiller, obnoxious to their attack from his religion, and still

* Dr. Johnson to Mrs. Thrale, June 9. and Mr. Richard Bask to Mr. Champion, June 7. 1780. The latter bears the further date. "in what way, London." Many curious circumstances of these riots are derived from a "True and Succinct Narrative" of them, which appeared in the same year, under the name of William Vincent, but written in fact by Thomas Holcroft, the dramatist. The story of the Jews in Holborn will be found at page 37. of this pamphlet.

† "Plan and Succinct Narrative," p. 68.

more, so perhaps from his trade. His large stores of spirits were poured forth in lavish profusion, and taken up by pailfuls; the kennel ran gin, and men, women, and children were seen upon their knees eagerly sucking up the liquor as it flowed. Many of these poor deluded wretches were stirred to the most frantic fury; many more sank down in helpless stupefaction, and, too drunk to move, perished in the flames which had been kindled by themselves.

Up to nearly this time there had been disgraceful terror in the magistracy, and as disgraceful torpor in the Government. Some men thought mainly of their own escape; others seem to have imagined that the rage of the people, like some impetuous flood, must quickly exhaust itself and pass by. Even at the outset there had been no lack of military aid; this was gradually increased by expresses sent in all directions; until by Wednesday the 7th, there could be mustered even at the lowest computation 10,000 men; besides which, several large bodies of Militia had been marched up in haste from the neighbouring counties. Yet still these numerous forces could be of no avail in restoring order, so long as the scruple remained that they had no legal right to fire till one hour after the Riot Act had been publicly read. In this dilemma the first to shew energy and determination was the King. It was from him, rather than from any of his subjects, that came the measures of protection so much needed and so long postponed. Till then, such had been the craven spirit of some men in authority that, according to the Duke of Grafton, in his *Memoirs*, even the Secretary of State's servant had worn in their hats, as a passport, the cockades of the rioters.

No further relying upon others, His Majesty, from his own impulse, called a Council, on Wednesday the 7th, and himself presiding, laid before the assembled Ministers the difficulty respecting the Riot Act. The whole Cabinet wavered, well remembering the excitement which had followed the letter of Lord Barrington in the riots of 1768, and the readiness, at that time, of juries to find verdicts against the officers and soldiers who had only done their duty. Happily for the peace, nay even the existence of London, the Attorney-General, Wedder-

burn, was present as assessor. When the King turned to him for his opinion, Wedderburn answered boldly, that he was convinced the Riot Act did not bear the construction put upon it. In his judgment, neither the delay of an hour, nor any such formality, is by law required, when the mob are engaged in a felony, as setting fire to a dwelling-house, and cannot be restrained by other means. The Minister's gathering firmness from Wedderburn, concurred; and the King then said that this had been clearly his own opinion, though he would not venture to express it beforehand; but that now, as supreme magistrate, he would see it carried out. "There shall be at all events," he added, "one magistrate in the kingdom who will do his duty!"

By the King's commands a Proclamation was immediately drawn up, and issued that same afternoon, warning all householders to keep themselves, their servants, or apprentices within doors, and announcing that the King's officers were now instructed to repress the riots by an immediate exertion of their utmost force. Such instructions were sent accordingly from the Adjutant-General's office: "In obedience to an order of the King in Council, the military to act without waiting for directions from the Civil magistrates." That evening, for the first time, the rioters found themselves confronted by a determination equal to their own. Bodies of Militia, or of regular troops, were sent straight to any point where uproar and havoc most prevailed. Thus, for instance, the Northumberland Militia, which had come that day by a forced march of twenty-five miles, were led at once by Colonel Holroyd into Holborn, amidst the thickest of the flames. A detachment of the Guards drove before them the plundering party which had taken possession of Blackfriars Bridge. Here several were killed by the musketry, while others were thrown, or in their panic threw themselves, over the parapet into the Thames. Wherever the mob would not disperse, the officers gave the word, and the soldiers fired without further hesitation. Only in some cases, where the rioters had succeeded in obtaining arms, was any firing attempted in return; nor could oaken sticks and iron bars withstand, for more than a few moments, the onset of disciplined troops.

They were some of the worst plunderers in their fall both punished and detected. One young chimney-sweeper who was killed, was found to have forty guineas in his pocket. Appalling were the sights and sounds of that night; sleep banished from every eye; the streets thronged with people in wonder and affright; furniture hastily removed, in apprehension of the flames; the frantic yells of the drunken, and the doleful cries of the wounded, mingling with the measured tread of the soldiers' march, and the successive volleys of their musketry; and the whole scene illumined by the fitful glare of six and thirty conflagrations.

These tumults, so culpably neglected at their outset and grown to a height that threatened "to lay waste" defended cities into ruinous heaps," could not be quelled at length without a loss of life almost as grievous as themselves. According to the Returns, sent in to Lord Amherst as Commander-in-chief, upwards of 200 persons were shot dead in the streets; and 250 were lying wounded in the hospitals, of whom seventy or eighty within a short time expired. Yet these Returns are far from conveying a full statement of the numbers that perished. They take no account of the dead or dying whom their own associates in the fray carried off and concealed. They take no account of those victims to their own excesses, who, lying helpless beside the pill-fuls or kennelfuls of gin, were smothered by the spreading flames, or overwhelmed by the falling houses. Dreadful as was the loss of life that night, it proved at least decisive. The conflagrations and the plunder were stopped; the incendiaries and the robbers were scared. On the morning of Thursday the 8th of June, no trace was to be seen of the recent tumults, beyond the smouldering ruins, the spots of blood upon the pavement, and the marks of shot upon the houses. No renewed attempt was made at riot, or even at gathering in the streets. The crowds which had been "as the stars of heaven for multitude," waned like the stars before the day; and those who, on their first appearance, had wondered whence so many came, now expressed equal wonder where they could be gone. Parties of soldiers were encamped in convenient places, as in the Parks, the Mu-

seum Gardens, and Lincoln's Inn Fields, ready to act on any fresh emergency, had any such occurred. By their exertions a great number of disorderly persons, concerned in the late riots, were secured; several, it is said, being taken in the cells of Newgate, attempting to rekindle the fire in those parts which had not been totally destroyed. Volunteer associations "for the defence of liberty and property" were likewise formed, and joined by many of those who had suffered or had feared the most from the temporary absence of the lawful powers. Throughout this day, the shops continued shut from Tyburn to Whitechapel, and no business was transacted, except at the Bank of England. But the general tranquillity soon restored the public confidence; the shops were opened the next morning, the Courts of Law resumed their sittings, and the course of mercantile affairs returned to its customary channel.

On the same day, Friday the 9th, Lord George Gordon was apprehended at his house in Welbeck Street, by a warrant from the Secretary of State. Had that measure been taken a week before, or had the House of Commons, on Friday the 2nd, exerted its own powers of commitment, as many members wished, the arrest might have tended to the repression of the riots, instead of being only the penalty for them. Lord George made no remark on his apprehension, beyond saying to the messengers, "If you are sure it is me you want, I am ready to attend you." When brought before the Privy Council and examined, he is alleged to have shown very little either of sense or spirit; and his examination having concluded, he was duly committed to the Tower, on a charge of High Treason, and escorted by a numerous guard. At the same time other measures were adopted to calm the public mind. Thus, a rumour had been circulated, that the prisoners in the hands of Government would be subject to Martial Law. Against this rumour there was levelled a hand-bill put forth by authority, declaring that no such purpose had ever been in the contemplation of Government, and that all persons in custody would be tried in due course, according to the usual forms. Another publication of the day attempted to counteract a far more extraordinary fear. It

seems to denote a vague idea in the minds of many persons, as if there might be something in the gloves which the King wore, or in the wine which the King drank, to imbue him with the errors of Popery! Certain it is at least, that the following paragraph appears in the public prints:—"We are authorised to assure the public, that Mr. Bicknell, His Majesty's hosier, is as true and faithful a Protestant as any in His Majesty's dominions. We have likewise the best authority for saying, that His Majesty's wine-merchants, and many others, are also Protestants."*

Thus ended the Gordon riots, memorable beyond most others from the proof which they afford how slender an ability suffices, under certain circumstances, to stir, if not to guide, great masses of mankind; and how the best principles and feelings, if perverted, may grow in practice equal to the worst. Bitter was the shame with which the leading statesmen, only a few days afterwards, looked back to this fatal and disgraceful week. They had seen their lives threatened, and their property destroyed, at the bidding of a foolish young fanatic, not worthy to 'unloose the latchet of their shoes. Such dangers might be boldly confronted, such losses might be patiently borne; but how keen the pang to find themselves objects of fierce fury and murderous attack to that people whose welfare, to the best of their judgments, they had ever striven to promote! In such words as these does Burke pour forth the anguish of his soul:—"For four nights I kept watch at Lord Rockingham's, or Sir George Savile's, whose houses were garrisoned by a strong body of soldiers, together with numbers of true friends of the first rank, who were willing to share their danger. Savile House, Rockingham House, Devonshire House, to be turned into garrisons! Oh what times! We have all served the country for several years—some of us for nearly thirty—with fidelity, labour, and affection, and we are obliged to put ourselves under military protection for our houses and our persons!"†

* London Courant, June 8. 1780.

† Burke to R. Shackleton, Corresp. vol. ii. p. 355.

In these riots, so great had been the remissness and timidity of Kennett, the Lord Mayor, that, at a later period, he became the object of a prosecution from the Attorney-General, and was convicted. One of his co-adjutors, Alderman Bull, a most zealous No Popery man, might even be said to have countenanced the insurrection, by allowing the constables of his Ward to wear the blue cockade in their hats, and by appearing publicly arm-in-arm with Lord George Gordon. But another City magistrate and Alderman, John Wilkes, unexpectedly came forth as the champion of law and order. With great courage — that indeed he never wanted — he went, in the midst of the disturbances, to apprehend the printer of a seditious hand-bill; and he did his duty throughout, undeterred by mob clamours, and regardless of mob applause.

When on the 19th, according to adjournment, the Lords and the Commons met, the business concerning the late riots was opened by the King in a Speech from the Throne. Addresses in reply, thanking His Majesty for his parental care and concern, were moved and carried in both Houses. The Peers, however, had some discussion as to the lawfulness of the military measures which had been pursued. Then, with his usual air of serene and stately dignity, Lord Mansfield rose. He touched slightly, but severely, upon the inaction, in the first instance, of the executive Government; "which," however, he added, "it is not my part to censure. My Lords, I do not pretend to speak from any previous knowledge, for I never was present at any consultation upon the subject, or summoned to attend, or asked my opinion, or heard the reasons which induced the Government to remain passive so long and to act at last." Here, it is said, there was wonder expressed by the bystanders, and scornful glances turned at the Treasury Bench. In another passage there was yet one more reflection upon the Civil Power, as liable to the charge either of neglect or "native imbecility." But the main stress of Lord Mansfield's speech was directed to the question of mere law. "I have not," — thus he spoke at the outset — "I have not consulted books; indeed, I have no books to consult." At this allusion, so gently

and so gracefully made, to the recent outrage wreaked upon him, the assembled Peers, without breaking their reverential silence, showed all the sympathy that looks or gestures could express. Yet they had little cause to deplore his loss of books, when, as his speech proceeded, they found the loss supplied by his memory's rich store — when they heard him, with unanswerable force, and on strictly legal grounds, vindicate the employment of the troops. "His Majesty," thus did Lord Mansfield conclude, "and those who have advised him, I repeat it, have acted in strict conformity to the Common Law. The military have been called in, and very wisely called in, not as soldiers, but as citizens. No matter whether their coats be red or brown, they were employed, not to subvert, but to preserve, the Laws and Constitution which we all so highly prize."

When Lord Mansfield sat down, the Address, which he supported, and which the Dukes of Richmond and Manchester had in some degree impugned, was carried, without one dissentient voice. Bishop Newton, who was present, records this speech as one of the finest ever heard in Parliament; and it has ever since been deemed a landmark in that sphere of our Constitutional law. At the time, however, its legal doctrines did not wholly escape animadversion out of doors; and some critics muttered that Lord Mansfield seemed to think all the law-books in the country burnt together with his own.*

In the Commons, next day, the great Protestant petition was discussed; when the House agreed to five Resolutions, which Burke had in part prepared, and Lord North corrected.† It is pleasing to find these two distinguished men, estranged on almost every other subject, combined on the great principle of religious toleration. There was, then, no shrinking from past merits, no subservience, to mob-cries. The Resolutions did indeed declare that all attempts to seduce the youth of this kingdom from the Established Church to Popery, were highly criminal according to the laws in force, and

* H. Walpole to Mason, June 29. 1730.

† See Lord North's private letter to Burke, in the Correspondence of the latter, vol. ii. p. 361.

might be a proper subject of further regulation. But they went on to say, in terms no less full and explicit, that all endeavours to misrepresent the Act of 1778, tended to bring dishonour on the national character, and to discredit the Protestant religion. The same spirit of bold adherence to the principles, then so far from popular, of 1778, will be found to animate the speeches that night both of Lord North and Mr. Burke. • With equal courage, and on still broader grounds, was put forth the argument of Fox. "I am a friend," he cried, "to universal toleration, and an enemy to that narrow way of thinking that makes men come to Parliament, not for the removal of some great grievances felt by them, but to desire Parliament to shackle and fetter their fellow-subjects."

The same praise of firmness against popular clamours, can scarcely be awarded to Sir George Savile. We find him, if not recede from his opinions, at least falter in his tone. He seemed eager to explain away his former votes, and eager also to bring in, under his own name, the Bill against Popish conversions. His Bill went to deprive the Roman Catholics of the right of keeping schools, or receiving youth to board at their houses. Music-masters, drawing-masters, and some other teachers not taking boarders, were to be exempt from penalty. But, not satisfied even with these safeguards, as they were deemed, of the Protestant faith, Sir George moved another clause in the Committee, to prevent any Roman Catholics from taking Protestant children as apprentices, a clause which Lord Beauchamp, and other members opposed as a restriction upon trade. Sir George's clause being, however, carried, Burke indignantly declared that he would attend no further the progress of the measure.* Finally, the Bill passed the Commons, but was lost in the Lords.

Before the end of the Session — it was closed by the King in person, on the 8th of July — Lord North carried

* *Parl. Hist.* vol. xxi. p. 726. In his speech at Bristol in the September following, Burke said: — "Among his (Sir George Savile's) faults I really cannot help reckoning a greater degree of prejudice against that people (the Roman Catholics), than becomes so wise a man." (*Works*, vol. iii. p. 393. ed. 1815.)

an Address, that an exact account might be taken of the losses and damages in the recent riots. The claims sent in accordingly to the Board of Works by various persons, and exclusive of the cost of the demolished gaols and public buildings, amounted to 180,000*l.*,* most of which sum, as assessed, was recovered by a rate on the several parishes concerned. Both Lord Mansfield and Sir George Savile declined to send in any claim for compensation; a forbearance to their honour, considering the high office of the one and the ample fortune of the other.

Before the end of the Session^c also, the measures against the rioters in custody were in active progress. It had been resolved to try the Middlesex cases at the next Old Bailey Sessions, commencing on the 28th of June; and for the cases in Surrey to issue, without delay, a Special Commission. Over this Commission the Lord Chief Justice De Grey had notice sent him that he would be required to preside. But De Grey, whose health was failing, and whose nerves were shaken, was so startled at the thought of such a task that, sooner than undertake it, he sent in his resignation. Wedderburn immediately claimed for himself the long-coveted Chief Justiceship, and he obtained it, notwithstanding Lord North's natural reluctance to forego so able a coadjutor in the House of Commons. He was further gratified with a Peerage, by the title of Lord Loughborough. His promotion was commonly approved, and drew forth warm congratulations, even from political opponents. Nor did they forbear from honourable counsels. "My Lord," wrote Burke, "I hope that, instead of bringing the littleness of Parliamentary politics into a Court of Justice, you will bring the squareness, the manliness, and the decision of a judicial place into the House of Parliament where you are just entering."†

Such high anticipations, it must be owned, were not altogether fulfilled. The speech with which the new Peer opened the Special Commission, on the 10th of

* Commons Journals, July 4. 1780. Annual Regist. 1780, p. 233.

† Letter, June 15. 1780. (Corresp. vol. II. p. 356.)

July, was indeed much admired for its eloquence, and much applauded as falling in with the angry temper of that time. But, on cool retrospect, it was felt that its partial overstatements, its intemperate denunciations of men upon their trial, were far from becoming in a Judge. "At present," writes one of his successors on the Bench, "no Counsel, even in opening a prosecution, would venture to make such a speech."

It so happened by good fortune for Lord George Gordon, that a legal technicality — and no law certainly so much abounded in these as our's — delayed the trial until the ensuing year, when a calmer temper in the public might be expected to prevail. But ere the month of July, 1780, had closed, all the other rioters in custody — no less than 135 — had been already tried.* Of these about one half were found Guilty: and among the convicted — but he received a respite — was Edward Dennis, the common hangman. Finally, after full consideration of the cases and numerous respites, there were twenty-one persons left to undergo the extreme sentence of the law.

* Lord Campbell's Lives of the Chancellors vol. vi. p. 144. Similar to his is the judgment of Lord Brougham.

CHAPTER LXII.

REVERTING from the course of home affairs to the prosecution of the war, we find England, at this period, threatened or assailed in every quarter of the globe.—Ever since the Spaniards' declaration of war in 1779, Gibraltar had been closely invested. The events of that memorable siege will require and deserve a consecutive account, and that account will find its place at their close. Meanwhile, it may here be stated, that Admiral Sir George Rodney, who had been named to the chief command in the West Indies, was directed on his way to afford some relief to the beleaguered fortress. On this occasion, as on every other, Rodney more than fulfilled the expectations of his friends. At the beginning of his voyage, and of the month of January, he captured a rich Spanish convoy in the Bay of Biscay. On the 16th of the same month, he encountered the Spanish Admiral Langara, off Cape St. Vincent. The action, which continued till two hours after midnight, was well-contested, but the victory of the English was complete. Langara's own ship of eighty guns was taken, and three ships of the line besides, while four others were either sunk, blown up, or driven on shore. Of the whole Spanish fleet only four sail escaped into Cadiz Bay. Rodney pursuing his voyage and anchoring off Gibraltar, cheered the garrison by his news almost as much as by his succour. He sent forward some light ships, to afford relief, in like manner, to the English at Fort Mahon; and these objects having been accomplished, he made the best of his way to the West Indies.

In that quarter the French fleet was commanded by Comte de Guichen; the Spanish, at a later period, by Admiral Solano. Rodney stood firm against both, even when combined, but was not able to bring them, as he wished, to a general engagement. At last, the three antagonists parted as though by consent. De Guichen convoyed to Europe the homeward-bound merchantmen

of France; Solano put into the Havanna; and Rodney sailed for a time towards the North American coasts.

The victory off Cape St. Vincent was by no means our sole success in the European seas. As Admiral Digby was returning home with Rodney's Spanish prizes, he fell in with and took a French ship of the line, besides two vessels laden with military stores. Several other captures were made by other Captains. But in the summer, although our naval glories were not tarnished, our trading interests sustained a grievous blow. Count Florida Blanca, the Spanish Minister, had received intelligence from his spies in England, that the united fleets of West and East India men were about to sail, with only two ships of war for their convoy. Laying his plan accordingly with great secrecy and skill, he sent out a squadron with every ship that could be spared, to intercept these fleets at their point of separation off the Azores islands. The two English convoy-ships escaped, but scarce any of the convoy, and thus well-nigh sixty sail freighted with costly merchandise, and in part also with military stores for the defence of our distant settlements, were brought captive into Cadiz. Never before, it is said, was that harbour entered by so rich a prize.*

But besides the utmost exertions by sea, both of France and Spain, we had also, at this trying period, to withstand the claims of Neutral nations. These deemed their commerce impeded or their honour compromised by the Right of Search, which we had exercised ever since the beginning of the war. They were disposed to contend, in opposition to the principles of our Maritime law, and to the decisions of our Admiralty Courts, that a neutral flag should cover or protect the cargoes even of a hostile state. On this plea, if it had been yielded, the supplies most injurious to our interests might have been poured in without stint or measure, not only to any point on the French or Spanish coasts, but also to our own insurgent Colonies. With the Dutch more especially, as next to ourselves the most commercial nation, we had for some time past been engaged in discussions on that score. The complaints, however, did not come wholly from

* Cox's History of Spain, vol. 7, p. 28.

their side. In our arduous conflict we had found them lukewarm allies, or rather secret enemies. We accused them of giving direct encouragement to the American privateers in their West India islands. We accused them of receiving favourably in their European ports Paul Jones with the English prize he had made. And we required from them, but in vain, military succours in the war, according to the positive stipulations in their treaty of 1716.

The memorials and counter-memorials on these subjects were transmitted in part by Count Welderen, the Dutch Minister in London, and in part by Sir Joseph Yorke, who for upwards of a quarter of a century had been the English Minister at the Hague. In the midst of this paper warfare and of the accumulating bales of protocols, some of the points in dispute were brought to a practical issue. On the first day of the New Year, 1780, a Dutch fleet of merchant-ships proceeding to the Mediterranean, and convoyed by one of their Admirals, Count Byland, fell in with an English squadron under Commodore Fielding. The Dutch commander refused to allow the pretensions of the English. He fired upon the boats which the Commodore sent to search his vessels; poured a broadside into Fielding's own flag-ship; and then, finding the act of hostility returned, struck his colours. The greater part of the convoy made their escape; but seven sail, besides Count Byland's man of war, were carried to Spithead. It was found that they were laden with military stores for the use of the French and Spaniards; and thus, on the event becoming known to the two Governments of St James's and the Hague, there arose a train of angry recriminations from both. You supply our enemies with arms, said the English. You insult our flag, said the Dutch.

But the main importance of this affair was the impression which it produced at Petersburg. News had come there some time since, that the Spanish cruisers in the Mediterranean had seized two Russian trading vessels, freighted with corn for the use of the garrison of Gibraltar. At these tidings the Empress Catherine had been highly incensed. "My commerce," she was fond

of saying, "is my child;"* and as such she was eager to protect it. She was already preparing some retaliatory measures against Spain, when the event of the 1st of January enabled her Minister Count Panin, an enemy of England, to give a more general scope to her resentments. On the 26th of February, she issued her famous Declaration to the Belligerent Courts, asserting in the strongest terms the maxim, that free ships make free goods; that contraband articles are only such as a treaty stipulates; and that blockades to be acknowledged must be stringent and effective. This Declaration, though professedly aimed at all the Belligerents, without distinction, in truth struck England solely, or almost solely, as the preponderating Power at sea. It became the basis of the "Armed Neutrality," as it was termed; an alliance between Russia, Sweden, and Denmark, to support the claims of Neutrals, if needful, even by the force of arms. To this alliance other Neutral Powers, as Holland and Prussia, afterwards acceded. Spain and France speedily gave in their adhesion to the Czarina's code; Spain declaring that she had infringed it only on compulsion to requite the violence of England. Thus, in addition to all her other enemies at this period, in the Old World and the New, England was left to maintain, single-handed, against a league of the Baltic Powers, her principles of Maritime Law.†

It might seem indeed as if, at that period, the other nations of the earth, jealous of our long ascendancy, or mindful of their past humiliations, were all combining to ruin or despoil us. Worse still, our own past errors or misdoings had turned against us a large share of our native strength; had arrayed in North America the arms, and in many parts of Ireland the feelings, of our fellow-countrymen in the opposite ranks. Of one thing,

* See the Malmedy Papers, vol. i, page 355

† Besides the many older writers on the "Armed Neutrality," I would commend to English readers, an account of it in the unpretending, but careful and very able, volume recently published by Mr. W. H. Trevelyan, *in America* (Diplomacy of the Revolution New York, 1852.). The principal points at issue have been condensed by M. Thiers, in a clear and masterly sketch. (*Le Consulat et l'Empire*, vol. II, pp. 198-210, ed. 1845.)

however, in those times an Englishman may well be proud. As our enemies increased, our spirit grew. Ministers who had seemed unequal to far inferior exigencies, now girded themselves up to grapple with the growing dangers. Sailors and soldiers, yeomen and militia felt, each man in his own sphere, the special call upon him, and seemed resolute to show that, although out-numbered, we were not over-matched. Our navy was so well directed and so bravely manned as to wage war, on no unequal terms, in the seas of Europe, of Africa, of Asia, and of America, against all the best navies of the world. Our troops, with so many other duties or defences in opposite quarters of the globe, yet, as will presently be seen, in the transactions of that year in North America, displayed an augmented energy, and achieved important successes.

The motives that weighed with the British chiefs in North America, to transfer the war from the Middle to the Southern States, have been already explained. On the day after Christmas, 1779, Sir Henry Clinton, with about 5,000, men, embarked on board the fleet of Admiral Arbuthnot. He left behind him at New York, to defend that important post, a sufficient force under General Knyphausen. His voyage proved most stormy and unprosperous; he lost several of his transports and all his cavalry horses, and was nearly seven weeks at sea. Immediately on landing he took measures, as he had designed, for investing Charleston, while Admiral Arbuthnot (with whom, however, the General was not on cordial terms) was to second the enterprise with his ships, up the Ashley river. Clinton, even after some reinforcements he received, could muster no more than 7,000 men; and the besieged were almost as many. They were commanded by General Benjamin Lincoln from the Northern States, and strengthened by a squadron of nine ships of war, under Commodore Whipple. Sufficient time had been left them for constructing some considerable works of defence by the assistance of French engineers; and further inland, another American force was gathering for their relief. Against this last, however, the English General, having succeeded in remounting his cavalry, sent Colonel Tarleton with a party of

horse; and so active and able was that officer, that the American force was surprised and utterly routed at Monk's Corner.

Having thus provided against the chances of relief, Sir Henry Clinton pushed the siege of Charleston with great vigour and success. At last, on the 11th of May, the Americans declared themselves willing to accept the terms of capitulation, which they had formerly refused; the articles were signed next day, and the English took possession of the town. The Americans, who laid down their arms on this occasion, marching out with certain honours of war, were upwards of 5,000. Of these the Continental troops and seamen were to remain prisoners, and the Militiamen to return to their homes upon parole. All their naval force was either destroyed or seized, together with a large amount of stores, and 400 pieces of artillery. Many other events in the American war, as the surprise at Trenton and the surrender of Saratoga, were no doubt of far higher moment in their consequences; but viewed as a military feat, as the result of skill and strategy combined with valour, this may, perhaps, be pronounced the most brilliant of all. The news of it reached England exactly at the close of Lord George Gordon's riots; and tended, in no small degree, to restore the public confidence, and to cheer the public mind.

Charleston being now in possession of the English, their next object was to secure, as far as possible, the general submission of the province. With this object Sir Henry Clinton issued several Proclamations, inviting support, and assuring of favour and protection all inhabitants who would return to their allegiance. Many hundreds did indeed consent to enrol themselves as loyal Militia, under Major Ferguson. At the same time, Sir Henry sent out several small expeditions to the interior of the country. One detachment, under Colonel Tarleton, fell in with a body of Virginians commanded by Colonel Buford at Wax-haw. Here the English were not only inferior in numbers, but exhausted by long marches beneath the summer sun, having in fifty-four hours come 100 miles, nevertheless, in the conflict which ensued, Buford's troops were utterly broken.

The Americans could not deny the victory, but have alleged that the slaughter was needlessly great, Tarleton's party having refused quarter to their opponents after they had ceased to resist and laid down their arms.*

The Americans in the Southern States were now greatly dispirited. During the siege of Charleston, they had expected assistance, but in vain, first from the Spanish force in Florida, and next from the French fleet in the West Indies. They saw South Carolina apparently won back to the Royal cause, and with some probability that North Carolina would follow the example. But, at this crisis, intelligence reached Sir Henry Clinton, that the Americans upon the Hudson were on the point of receiving considerable succours, that a French fleet sent to their aid, with several French regiments on board, might soon be expected off the New England coasts. Sir Henry deemed it his duty to provide in person, for the safety of his principal charge. In the first days of June he accordingly re-embarked for New York, with a portion of his force; leaving, however, about 4,000 men under Lord Cornwallis's command. The instructions given to Lord Cornwallis, were to consider the maintenance of Charleston, and in general of South Carolina, as his main and indispensable objects, but consistently with these, he was left at liberty to make "a solid move," as it was termed, into North Carolina, if he judged it proper, or if he found it possible.

Charles, the second Earl, and afterwards the first Marquis, Cornwallis was born in 1738. Early in life he had embraced the military profession, which he pursued with undeviating honour, though variable success. In him the want of any shining talents was, in great measure, supplied by probity, by punctuality, by a steady courage, by a vigilant attention to his duties. In 1766, on the Declaratory Bill, he had shown his conciliatory temper to the Colonies; denying with Lord Camden and only three Peers besides, any right we had to tax them while they remained unrepresented in the

* Gordon's Hist. vol. II. p. 241. *ibid.* vol. II. p. 158.

House of Commons.* When, however, the war broke forth, he acted solely as a soldier. Under Lord Cornwallis was now serving a young officer of no common spirit and daring, destined, like himself, to attain, at another period, the highest office that an Englishman, out of England, can fill — the office of Governor-General of India. This was Francis Lord Rawdon, subsequently better known, first as Earl of Moira, and then as Marquis of Hastings. In the ensuing battle of Camden, where he held the second rank and played a distinguished part, he was not yet twenty-six years of age, and he had already gained renown, five years before, in the battle of Bunker's Hill.†

While the siege of Charleston still went on, the Congress, alarmed for the two Carolinas, directed Washington to send thither a considerable detachment of his army, under Baron de Kalb. On the surrender of Lincoln at Charleston, De Kalb became the senior officer in the Southern States; but in the summer, as the alarm increased, the Congress appointed General Gates above him to the chief command. The affair at Saratoga, though in truth little owing to Gates, had given him, up to this time, a high reputation for military skill; and his presence in the South, it was imagined, would go far to secure the public confidence. In the rapid warfare which ensued, both armies were exposed to great sufferings from toilsome marches, in a well-nigh tropic clime. The Americans, as Gates led them onwards, had to make their way through a country of sand-hills, swamps, and in their own expressive phrase, "pine-harrens." So scarce were provisions in their camp, that at one time there were strong appearances of mutiny. They complained that they had little to eat, beyond the lean cattle picked up in the woods. Their whole army

* See vol. v. p. 125, and the pointed observations of Wilkes, on referring, some years later, to that debate. (Parl. Hist. vol. xvi. p. 89.) Horace Walpole, writing from looser reminiscences, transfers the scene to the debate upon the Stamp Act, in 1765. (Letter to Mason, Nov. 28, 1765, ed. 1851.)

† "Lord Rawdon behaved to a charm: his name is established 'for life' General Burgoyne to Lord Stanley, June 25. 1775. (American Archives, vol. 5, p. 1044.)"

was under the necessity of using green corn and peaches in the place of bread; and they subsisted, for some days, upon peaches alone.*

The approach of this new army brought a great change in the Carolinians. Many who had joined the Royal Standard now again forsook it, some under circumstances of especial treachery. One Lisle, for example, who had not only taken the oath of allegiance, but accepted military rank as a King's officer, waited just long enough to supply his battalion with clothes, arms, and ammunition from the Royal stores, and then quietly led them back to his old friends. On his defection, Lisle first joined Colonel Sumpter, an active and able partisan from South Carolina, who now began a Guerrilla warfare, but who was twice repulsed with loss; once at Rocky Mount, and once at Hanging Rock.

The English in South Carolina held, at this time, a line of posts extending from the Pedee river to the fortified village of Ninety Six.† Their principal force, however, lay towards the centre, at Camden; it was commanded by Lord Rawdon, who had hurried his men to protect them from the summer heats. Earl Cornwallis, upon the news of Gates's advance, hastened in person to the post of danger. At two o'clock in the morning of the 16th of August, the vanguards of the two armies met. A skirmish ensued, which, after daybreak, became a general engagement. Lord Cornwallis had only 2,000 men: the Americans, more than

* Ramsay's Hist. vol. ii. p. 164. So abundant are the peach tree woods in that country, that the fruit is used to fatten swine; "and there can be no doubt," says Mr. J'hilips, "that they are indigenous to Louisiana, as well as to Persia; although in many parts of America the peach is regarded as a foreign fruit, having been introduced from Europe before Louisiana had been explored." (*Pomarium Britannicum*, p. 283, ed. 1831.)

† One American author (of rather a heavy imagination) tells us that the name of Ninety Six is derived "from the uniform excellence of the soil. The two numbers which compose its name, viewed on any side, will express the same quantity!" On the other hand, Colonel Henry Lee has just as fully says:—"Ninety Six takes its name from the circumstance of its being ninety-six miles distant from the principal village of the Cherokee Indians." (*Campaign of 1781, in the Carolinas*, p. 207, ed. 1844.)

twice as many; these however were, in great part, raw and ill-disciplined Militia. The Virginians, on their left wing, fled almost at the first fire, throwing down their arms, bayonets and all; and the centre followed. On their right the Maryland and Delaware troops bravely maintained their position for some time, but at last were routed also. General Gates has been accused of leaving the field too soon, and before the day was irretrievably lost. Never was a battle more decisive. Besides several hundred slain and as many captured, the Americans lost all their artillery and stores; and being chased full twenty miles by the cavalry of Tarleton, they were so utterly scattered and dispersed, that not even the smallest of their battalions remained entire, and that nearly all their officers were parted from their respective troops. Their whole track was strewn with arms and baggage flung away. Among the prisoners was their second in command, Baron de Kalb, who died next day of his wounds.

The victory at Camden was not the only success of the English at this time. Active as was Colonel Sumpter, he was surprised and routed at the Catawba ford by the no less active Colonel Tarleton. Lord Cornwallis now advanced to the town of Charlotte, and formed a plan for the conquest of North Carolina. In the first place, however, he deemed it requisite to take measures for securing the South province. Highly incensed at such signal acts of treachery as Lisle's, he had recourse to some most severe orders in return. The penalty of death was denounced against all Militiamen who, after serving with the English, went off to the insurgents. Several of the prisoners in the battle of Camden — now taken with arms in their hands and with British professions in their pockets — were hanged. Other such examples were made at Augusta and elsewhere. Some persons who had been living on their parole at Charleston, and who, in spite of their parole, carried on a secret correspondence with their insurgent countrymen, were shipped off to St. Augustine. A proclamation was issued, sequestering the estates of those who had been the most forward to oppose the establishment of the English authority within the province.

Perhaps these measures exceeded the bounds of justice; certainly they did the bounds of policy. This was shown by the fatal event, when on the overthrow of the Royalist cause in South Carolina, the measures of Lord Cornwallis became the plea for other oppressions, and for every act of oppression that resentment could devise.

Within the more limited sphere of his own command, Lord Rawdon^o had recourse to, or at the very least announced, some measures still sorer, and far less to be justified. In a letter to one of his officers, which was intercepted, we find, for example, what follows: — "I will give the inhabitants ten guineas for the head of any deserter, belonging to the volunteers of Ireland; and five guineas only, if they bring him in alive." No amount of provocation or of precedent in his enemies, no degree of youthful ardour in himself, are at all adequate to excuse these most blamable words. When, however, he was called upon to vindicate them, Lord Rawdon declared that many of his threats were meant only "to act on the fears and prejudices of the vulgar," and by no means to be carried into practical effect.*

Up to this time, the progress of the British in the Carolinas had been uniformly prosperous. But early in October, Major Ferguson led forward his militia too far or too incautiously. The backwoodsmen, from the Alleghany Hills, armed with well-tried rifles, and collecting in large numbers, surrounded this body of Royalists, who, after a brave resistance, were either killed or made prisoners; Major Ferguson himself being among the slain. This disaster, which took place at the pass of the King's Mountain, induced Lord Cornwallis to retreat from Charlotte, and to postpone, until next year, his military schemes in North Carolina.

At New York, the fleet of Admiral Arbuthnot, with Sir Henry Clinton's troops on board, had no sooner sailed for Charleston, than the port was closed by intense frost, with great falls of snow. A winter so severe had not been known in that climate within the memory of

* Lord Rawdon's intercepted letter (July 1, 1780), together with his subsequent explanation addressed to Sir Henry Clinton, will be found in the Appendix to Washington's Writings, vol. vii. pp. 554 and 555.

man. Not only the North River, but the straits and channels which surround it were covered with ice so thick and firm as to allow the passage of even the heaviest artillery. The people at New York, including the British officers and soldiers, suffered the utmost distress from the scarcity of fuel and provisions.* And though the winter season might preclude any operations against them in the open field, it seemed to expose them to another danger—that the American army might advance along the ice and attack New York from the water side.

Washington, however, was in no condition to avail himself of this opportunity. Never was his army in worse plight; never had the Congress shown itself more neglectful of his wants. He could only subsist at all by levying, from his head-quarters at Morristown, military contributions from the surrounding districts. To this oppressive system it was most unwillingly that his generous spirit stooped; and the supplies thus obtained proved no less scanty than illegal. Even at the close of winter, the General declares that:—“We are constantly ‘on the point of starving.’”† Nor were his numbers by any means such as the Congress had promised and decreed; on paper, he had 35,000 men; in fact, less than 12,000. Thus until midsummer, 1780, the American army in the Central States remained almost wholly at gaze. There were only two slight and unsuccessful attacks: the one by Lord Stirling, on Staten Island; the other by General Wayne, at Bergen Point. The English, on their part, while expecting Clinton's return, abstained from every enterprise, except a landing in the Jerseys, which was ill planned, and ended only in the capture and confiscation of Springfield.

* This distress is described, in her usual lively manner, by Madame de Riedel. (*Madame de Riedel's Letters*, pp. 249—253.) In a single night snow fell to the depth of four or five feet.

† To Major General Howe, April 23, 1780. General Greene, who was then with Washington as Quarter-Master General, writes thus, a fortnight later, to President Reed:—“The army has not four days' provision of food in the world. The great man ‘is confounded at the situation, but appears to be reserved and ‘silent.’ I write you for your confidence.” (*Life of Reed*, vol. ii. p. 194.)

Under these circumstances, it was with especial pleasure that Washington welcomed the return of La Fayette, as the bearer of cheering intelligence. In April, the young Marquis arrived at Boston with the news that his Government were preparing, and would speedily despatch, an armament of sea and land forces, for the succour of America. In the July following, the promised armament appeared off the Rhode Island coast; it consisted of seven sail of the line, and several smaller ships of war, with about 6,000 troops on board. This was called only the first division; but the second, though announced, never reached America. The fleet was commanded by the Chevalier de Ternay, and the army by the Comte de Rochambeau. In framing the instructions for the latter, the French Ministry had shown a wise and provident forethought. To guard against jealousy between the two so lately hostile nations, they directed that Rochambeau and his troops should, in all cases, be under the orders of Washington, who was appointed to the rank of Lieutenant-General in the French armies. American officers were to command French officers of equal rank; and in all military acts or capitulations, the American Generals were to sign the first.

The officer to whom this important trust had been committed, the Comte de Rochambeau, had seen some service in the campaigns against Prince Ferdinand. But born as he was in the worst age of French generalship, he did not rise above the level of his contemporaries, the Clermonts and the Soubises. So acute a judge of men as Mirabeau, speaks with the utmost contempt of his capacity. Another close observer represents him as well skilled in his manœuvres, but too fond of displaying them by demonstrations upon his staff-box or his dining-table.*

Sir Henry Clinton, who had returned to New York

* "M. de Rochambeau ne parlait que de faits de guerre, manœuvrait et prenait des dispositions militaires dans la plume, dans la chambre, sur la table, sur votre tabatière et vous la tiriez de votre poche." (*Mémoires du Duc de Lauzun*, 1782, p. 335.) Yet the writer admits that Rochambeau understood his profession well. "Cet homme tout à fait incapable" says, on the contrary, Mirabeau. (*Corresp. avec le Comte de La Marmorat*, l. p. 283.)

before the arrival of the French, was eager to attack them in Rhode Island on their first landing, and while still unsupported by their American allies. But the indecision, and consequent delay, of Admiral Arbuthnot, lost him this auspicious chance. The English troops for the expedition were at last embarked and despatched; but finding M. de Rochambeau already re-enforced and fortified, they had to come back without a blow. The English fleet, however, being strengthened by the arrival of Admiral Graves, with six ships of war, was now considerably superior to the French, so that Arbuthnot was enabled to blockade the latter closely, within the harbour of Newport. In this state of things, Rochambeau deemed it necessary that the army also should remain at Newport, lest in its absence, and without its aid, the fleet should be attacked and overpowered. And thus the efforts of the great French armament, from which so much had been expected in America, were stopped short, or brought down to nothing, at the very outset, and during, it may be said, the whole remainder of that year.

Nevertheless, Sir Henry Clinton, a cool and far-sighted commander, did not allow himself to be elated, either by the Admiral's superiority at Newport, or by his own successes in the South. At the end of August, he sent home one of his most trusted officers, Brigadier-General Dalrymple, with a secret letter to the Secretary of State. Already with a just view of the growing difficulties round him, he had pressed for his recall. He now pointed out, not merely the evil of the want of cordiality between himself and the Admiral (for in such appointments a change might soon be made), but the utter impossibility of pursuing the war without new forces. The troops which he had designed for the Rhode Island service, and which his *Embarkation Return* showed as 6,000 men, were all that he could reckon on for any other enterprise. With these 6,000 he trusted that the peninsula between the Chesapeake and the Delaware might be reduced. But after its reduction, 4,000 would be needful to hold it. "Arrived," he adds, "at that stage of success, a glance upon the *Records* of the army, divided into "garrisons, and reduced by casualties on the one part,

"with the consideration of the task yet before us on the other, would, I fear, renew the too just reflection that we are by some thousands too weak to subdue this formidable rebellion."

The compulsory inactivity of Rochambeau was alike distasteful to Washington and to himself. They were both eager to devise some means for commencing forward operations; but none such appeared while the superiority of the English naval force continued. However, the two commanders agreed to confer in person on the subject; and they met accordingly at Hartford, in Connecticut, on the 21st of September. During his absence on this occasion, Washington left his army under the charge of General Greene. As a symbol of friendship to his new allies, he directed all the Continental officers to wear cockades of black and white intermixed; the former colour being that of the American cockade, and the latter that of the French. Then, too, perhaps, the Fleurs de Lys of France may have floated, side by side, with the American stars and stripes. Yet it is by no means clear when the latter standard was, for the first time, used. Nor, strange to say considering its recent origin, is the meaning of that symbol known, with any certainty, to the nation that bears it. One living writer in the United States supposes, that these stars and stripes may have reference to the Mulletts and Bars on Washington's heraldic shield†: a new and ingenious, but scarcely probable, conjecture, to be admitted only if no better can be found.

The younger Frenchmen, both during the interview of the chiefs at Hartford, and in their subsequent visits to Washington's head-quarters, were, it seems, most agreeably surprised by what they saw. Thus writes one of them:—"I am bound to say, that the General Officers

* The secret despatch of Clinton, dated August 26, 1780, and derived from the State Paper Office, will be found in the first part of my Appendix. The second part comprises the King's reflections upon it, taken from the North MSS. They were written September 26, the despatch having arrived in London only the day before.

† *North American Review*, for July 1853, p. 137. (See also the sixth volume of this History, p. 43.)

of the American army have a very soldier-like and becoming demeanour. All those officers whom their duty puts forward in respect to strangers, combine a great deal of politeness with a great deal of ability. Nor do their head-quarters betoken either inexperience or perfidy. When one sees the battalion of Guards of the Commander-in-Chief encamped within the precincts of his house; nine waggons, allotted for his equipage, ranged within his court; grooms in great numbers, holding ready the very fine horses that belong to the General, or to their Aides-de-camp; when one observes the perfect order maintained within these precincts, where the guards are regularly placed, and where the drums beat both an especial Reveille and an especial Retreat—one feels tempted to apply to the Americans what Pyrrhus said, on reconnoitering the Roman camp:—‘Truly, these so-called barbarians have nothing barbarous in their discipline.’”

This picture, it will be seen, is of entire regularity and subordination, such as the longest established Government could not surpass. Indeed, some critics may doubt whether, instead of slighting forms and titles, as Revolutionary chiefs are wont to do, the founders of the American Union might not indulge in them too much. Such, at least, was the opinion of an English Colonel, who had taken service with them, and whom they had raised to their highest rank—General Charles Lee. “For my own part,” he cries, “I would as lief they put ‘ratobane’ into my mouth as the ‘Excellency’ with which I am daily crammed!”†

It is not to be supposed, however, that the American people at large were then well versed in the pageantries of war. The contrary may be justly presumed, from the description which an eye-witness—a chaplain in Rochambeau’s army—gives us of a great review at Phila-

* *Voyages de Marquis de Chastellux*, vol. i. p. 121. ed. 1786. It is remarkable that the same application of Pyrrhus’s saying occurred to Burke at nearly the same time. (Speech on Economical Reform, Feb. 11. 1780.)

† To “His Excellency” Patrick Henry, July 29. 1776, printed in the *American Archives*, vol. i. p. 431. The whole letter is very curious.

delphia. There the native spectators were so far misled by a large amount of braid and silver lace, as to mistake a courier for a Commander-in-Chief. Whenever this servant went up to his master, (one of the Colonels,) to receive, it was supposed that he had come to give, an order.*

At this time the important fortress of West Point, the key of the upper province of New York, was held by General Benedict Arnold. No officer on the American side had more highly distinguished himself in the earlier stages of the war. It was he who led the daring expedition through the wilderness upon Quebec. It was he who bore the brunt of those hard-fought actions which resulted in the surrender of a British force at Saratoga. His wounds in that campaign disabled him, for a time, from active service; but when Philadelphia was relinquished by Sir Henry Clinton, Arnold was appointed to the command in that city. There he married a young and beautiful lady, one of the heroines of the recent MISCHIANZA †, and as that very circumstance implies, of a family well affected to the Royal cause. As the military chief of a great town, Arnold displayed arrogance in his demeanour and ostentation in his style of living. By the former he gave offence to the Philadelphians, by the latter he involved himself in difficulties. Complaints — the more readily, no doubt on account of his haughty manners, — were brought against him on divers petty points, as that he had used some public waggons, even though he paid for them, to remove some private property. He was brought before a Court-Martial, which subjected him to long and vexatious delays, acquitting him at last of the principal charges, but finding him Guilty of the rest; and their sentence being upon the whole that he should receive a public reprimand from the Commander-in-Chief.

Conscious as was Arnold of the arduous services which he had rendered, and even in his prime overrating

* Voyage dans l'Amerique de M. l'Abbe Robic en 1781, p. 89. ; also as cited in Reed's Memoirs, vol. II. p. 302. The Abbe audaciously adds : — "Les bons Penultreniens sont bien loin de nous pour l'etiquette, comme nous bien loin d'eux pour la legislation."

† See vol. vi. p. 345.

them, he chafed in the midst of distresses, the claims which he had preferred Government for money spent in Canada, were partly disallowed. With these personal causes of resentment were mingled perhaps some others of a public kind. He had always disapproved an alliance with France, and viewed its progress with great aversion and jealousy. The strength of these various feelings and motives in his mind may be estimated from the extreme resolution to which they now gave rise. Arnold determined to change sides and to join the Royalists, betraying to them at the same time any secrets, or any post, with which he might be entrusted.

With these views, which, perhaps even in his own mind, were only unfolded by degrees, Arnold had already begun a secret correspondence with Sir Henry Clinton, through Sir Henry's Aide-de-camp, and afterwards Adjutant-General, Major John André. He signed his letters merely "Gustavus," disguising his handwriting, and giving no other clue to his real name; but from time to time he sent intelligence which proved to be authentic and important. Thus the attention of Sir Henry was effectually roused, and he desired his Aide-de-camp to keep up the correspondence with André signing his own letters as "John Anderson." Still "Gustavus" did not reveal himself; but on combining and weighing a great variety of slight circumstances, Clinton became convinced that his secret correspondent could be no other than General Arnold; and on this persuasion the exchange of letters was continued.

Even before the close of his long-protracted trial, Arnold had found it necessary to relinquish his command in Philadelphia. But Washington, who never suspected his fidelity, and who knew his talents, was anxious to employ him in the next campaign. Arnold represented himself as still suffering from his wounds, and scarcely equal to active service in the field; but he sought, and obtained, the charge of West Point, and of all the other posts in the Highlands. He arrived at his new station, at the beginning of August, 1780, and had already transmitted to Sir Henry Clinton a direct proposal to surrender himself, in such a manner as to contribute

"every possible advantage to His Majesty's arms." The vast importance of this overture could not fail to be discerned by the British chief. To gain possession of West Point and its dependent posts, with their garrisons and military stores, and with the command of the Hudson's river which they implied, and by the same blow to strike distrust and terror into the very heart of the American ranks, was an object certainly, at that time, second to no other towards the successful prosecution of the war.

Sir Henry Clinton, therefore, eagerly applied himself to conclude the negotiation with Arnold, assuring him of all the rank and emoluments which he could expect in the British service. A favourable time for the final arrangement seemed to be afforded by the departure of Washington from his army to meet Count Rochambeau at Hartford. First, however, it was necessary that a meeting should be held with Arnold to settle the whole plan. The American General insisted that the officer sent out to confer with him, should be no other than Major André, through whose hands the whole previous correspondence had passed. To this Sir Henry agreed, without any idea of danger to his gallant young friend. For he strictly enjoined him, before his departure, not to enter the American lines; not to assume any disguise of dress; and not to be the bearer of any written communications by which the nature of his business could be traced.

Major John André was, at this time, not yet thirty years of age. His parents, though residing in England, were natives of Geneva, to which town, also, they sent their son for education. Being designed for a merchant, he was next transferred to a counting-house, in London. There, after some years, becoming acquainted with a beautiful young lady, Miss Honora Sneyd, he indulged a romantic and hot unrequited passion, which, however, her family successfully opposed. The young lady sighed a while; but her faithful friend, Miss Seward, saw, as she describes it, these sighs "disperse like April storms." She became the second wife of Mr. Edgeworth, the father, by his first wife, of Maria Edgeworth, the justly celebrated writer of so many admirable tales. André, on the other hand, to seek relief from his sorrows, joined

the British army in Canada, with a Lieutenant's commission, at the outbreak of the war. He shared in the capitulation of St. John's to the insurgent General Montgomery, during the autumn of 1776. Soon afterwards he wrote as follows to a friend:—"I have been taken prisoner by the Americans, and stripped of every thing, but the picture of Honora, which I concealed in my pocket. Preserving that, I yet think myself fortunate." The miniature which he mentions, had been painted by himself. His person was handsome, his manners were engaging; and with his skill as a draughtsman, which was considerable, he combined a taste for poetry, and a knowledge of several branches of literature. Nor had he neglected the studies of his own profession; on the contrary, he gave promise in it of considerable future eminence. Being exchanged with other prisoners, after some months' captivity, he was selected, without any other recommendation than his merit, as Aide-de-camp, first by General Grey, and next by Sir Henry Clinton. So high was the esteem entertained for his abilities, that in the winter of 1779, Sir Henry used most strenuous and, at last, successful exertions, to obtain for him, from the Ministry in England, the rank of Major together with the post of Adjutant-General.

This accomplished young officer, so well worthy a happier fate, was on board the Vulture sloop of war, which Sir Henry had sent up the Hudson; and went on shore by night in a boat despatched for him by Arnold. He met the American General on the western bank, and on neutral ground; but their conference not being entirely concluded as the dawn was approaching, André was prevailed upon to accompany Arnold to a house within the enemy's lines. There they agreed on the precise means by which the works at West Point were to be made over to an English expedition ascending the Hudson for that purpose. Having terminated this arrangement, the next great object for André was to return on board the Vulture sloop. But the boatmen demurred, and refused to convey him, so that it became necessary to adopt some other plan. He was prevailed upon to discard his uniform; to accept a pass from Arnold, under the name of John Anderson; and first

crossing the river at the King's Ferry, thence to make his way on horseback, with a guide. He was also induced to take charge of divers papers in the handwriting, though without the signature, of Arnold, explaining the state of the works at West Point, and indicating the scheme for its surrender; an imprudence the more signal since, as Sir Henry Clinton declares in his Memoirs, both Arnold and André must have known that these papers were not wanted for his information.

Without any mischance, André succeeded in passing the American lines, and was again on neutral ground, when on approaching the village of Tarrytown, three Militiamen, who were playing at cards near the roadside, sprung upon and seized his horse. In the first moments of surprise, André avowed himself to be a British officer; upon which, disregarding his pass, and proceeding to search his person, they found the secret papers concealed within his boots. They rejected the offer of his watch and money, and of a larger present from New York if they would let him go, and they took him with his papers before Lieutenant-Colonel Jameson, who commanded their nearest military post. The Colonel, as Washington said afterwards, appears to have shown "egregious folly." He formed no suspicion of Arnold, although he read the papers, and although, as is alleged, he knew the handwriting. He decided upon detaining André as a prisoner, and forwarding the papers to Washington; but at the same time wrote to Arnold a full account of the whole transaction. Thus Arnold would become apprised that his treachery was on the eve of detection; since the papers were on their way to Washington, and since Washington, at all events, was well acquainted with the hand.

The house in which General Arnold had fixed his residence, Robinson's House by name, was not within the lines of West Point, but on the opposite eastern bank of the Hudson, and two or three miles lower down the stream. There, on the morning of the 25th, Arnold was expecting a visit from the Commander-in-Chief on his return from Hartford. Washington was delayed by

the examination of some redoubts; but he sent forward his two Aides-de-camp, with whom, and with his own Staff, Arnold sat down to breakfast. They were still at table when an express arrived bringing the letter from Jameson to Arnold. It was opened and read by Arnold in presence of his guests; and so great was his self-command, that he was enabled to conceal from them the vehement emotions which it caused. He requested the Aides-de-camp to inform General Washington, whenever he came, that he had been unexpectedly called over the river by some sudden business at West Point. He ordered a horse to be got ready; and then leaving the table hastily, went up to his wife's chamber. With the brevity required of one whose very minutes might be numbered, he told her that they must instantly part, perhaps to meet no more, and that his life depended on his reaching the British ranks without detection. Struck with horror, the unhappy lady swooned away. In that state he left her, as indeed he had no other choice: hurried down stairs; sprung upon the horse, which he found saddled at the door; and rode full speed to the river's bank. There he entered a boat, and bid the oarsmen push out to the middle of the stream. Next displaying a white handkerchief, he told them that he was going on board the Vulture with a flag of truce. In the Vulture they rowed accordingly; unmolested, since the white emblem was discerned, by any fire from the American lines. When they reached the English ship, Arnold made himself known to the Captain, and was conveyed by him in perfect safety to New York. Notwithstanding the utter disappointment of all the hopes which he had raised, he was appointed a Colonel in the British service with the local rank of Major-General. He also received a payment of upwards of 6,000*l.* in compensation for the losses which he alleged himself to have sustained. Shortly after his arrival, he published an Address to the Inhabitants of America, and next a Proclamation to the Continental troops, alleging public grounds for his desertion, and exhorting them to follow his example.

* The details of Arnold's capture, and of Arnold's escape (as also

Very shortly after the headlong flight of Arnold, General Washington arrived at his house. He had not yet received the papers, nor formed the slightest suspicion of the plot. On being told that Arnold had been called over to West Point, he decided not to wait, but to follow. He embarked accordingly, attended by all his officers, except Colonel Hamilton, who remained within doors. As the whole party were seated in the barge, moving smoothly, with the majestic scenery of the Highlands round them, Washington said, "Well, Gentlemen, I am glad, on the whole, that General Arnold has gone before us; for we shall now have a salute, and the roaring of the cannon will have a fine effect among the mountains." Yet, as they drew nearer and nearer to the beach, they heard no sound, they saw no sign, of welcome. "What!" said Washington, "do they not intend to salute us?" Just then an officer was observed wending his way down among the rocks. He met the barge as it touched the shore; and on perceiving the Commander-in-Chief, asked pardon for his seeming neglect, since, as he said, he was taken wholly by surprise. "How is this, Sir?" inquired Washington, no less astonished, "is not General Arnold here?" — "No, Sir," replied the officer; "he has not been here these two days, nor have I heard from him within that time." — "This is extraordinary," Washington rejoined. "Since, however, we are come, although unexpectedly, we must look round a little, and see in what state things are with you." So saying, he proceeded to examine the works.

During the absence of Washington at West Point, there arrived for him, at Arnold's house, the despatch of Colonel Jameson; it was opened by Colonel Hamilton. No sooner, then, did Washington, when his inspection was concluded, return across the river, than he was eagerly drawn aside by Hamilton, and the evidence of

many of the following), are derived from Mr. Sparks's careful and judicious *Life of Arnold* (pp. 199—242). He had the advantage of perusing, while in England, Sir Henry Clinton's despatch on the subject, at the State Paper Office. Another narrative by Sir Henry, extracted from his *MS. Memoirs*, will be found in my *Appendix*.

Arnold's plot laid before him. The calmness and equanimity of Washington were now, as usual with him in all emergencies, displayed. To no one in his train, except to La Fayette and Knox, did he that day impart the painful news. His only remark was to La Fayette: "Whom can we trust now?" And when dinner was shortly afterwards announced, he said to the other officers, without the smallest change in his demeanour, "Come, Gentlemen, since Mrs. Arnold is unwell and the General is absent, let us sit down without ceremony."

Arnold, when on board the *Vulture*, had sent back a flag of truce, with a letter to Washington. In this he asserted that he had "a heart conscious of its rectitude" in the step which he had taken, and for the wife whom he had left, he solicited the General's pity and protection. He declared her, with great feeling, to be "as good and as innocent as an angel, and incapable of doing wrong." At this very time, the poor lady was well nigh frantic with distress. Thus in a few sentences written next day, does Colonel Hamilton describe her state:—"She, for a considerable time, entirely lost herself. The General went up to see her, and she upbraided him with being in a plot to murder her child. One moment she raved, another she melted into tears. Sometimes she pressed her infant to her bosom and lamented its fate, occasioned by the imprudence of its father, in a manner that would have pierced insensibility itself. All the sweetness of beauty, all the loveliness of innocence, all the tenderness of a wife, and all the fondness of a mother, showed themselves in her appearance and conduct. We have every reason to believe that she was entirely unacquainted with the plan." It is only just to the Americans to add that—far unlike the Spaniards in some similar cases of late years—they did not, even when most flushed with their anger against Arnold, wreak it in any, even the smallest, act of injury or insult to his wife. She was allowed, ere the close of the year, to rejoin her husband at New York, and share his subsequent fortunes.

It was for Major André that their whole resentment was reserved. Soon after his arrest, that young officer

had written to Washington, frankly avowing his name and rank. By Washington's orders he was conveyed, in the first instance, to West Point, and next to the head-quarters of the army at Tappan, where his case was forthwith referred to a Court of Inquiry. That Court consisted of fourteen officers, all Americans, except Baron Stouben and the Marquis de La Fayette; their President was General Greene. Having assembled, the prisoner was brought before them and examined; but was not allowed the presence of any advocate, any witness, or any friend. Even under such depressing circumstances, it is owned by American writers, that he maintained throughout a manly, dignified, and respectful deportment, replied to every question promptly, showed no embarrassment, and sought no disguise. His main anxiety appeared to be to avoid endangering the safety, by disclosing the name, or relating the conduct, of any other person but himself.*

Of procrastination, at least, that Court of Inquiry cannot be accused. At the close of their first and only meeting, they reported it as their opinion that Major André ought to be considered as a spy, and, according to the law and usage of nations, to suffer death. On the Commander-in-Chief it now depended to confirm or to annul, to execute or to remit, their judgment. André himself received the news with unshaken firmness. At his request, he was permitted to write and send a letter to Sir Henry Clinton. That letter has been published. It expresses, in most affectionate and affecting terms, his gratitude for his General's many acts of kindness. And of himself it adds: "I am perfectly tranquil in mind, and prepared for any fate to which an honest zeal for my King's service may have devoted me."

Already, even some days before, Sir Henry, full of solicitude and concern for his young friend, had made an earnest appeal to General Washington for his release. He rested his demand on two grounds: first, that André had gone ashore from the Vulture with a flag of truce sent for him by Arnold; and secondly, that at the time of his arrest, he was under the protection of a pass,

* Life by James Smith, Esq. p. 210.

which Arnold, while commanding at West Point, had undoubted authority to give. To his letter Clinton added a note from Arnold himself, in corroboration of his statements. Sir Henry received, however, an unfavourable reply from Washington, and at the same time was apprised of the decision to which the Board of Officers had come. He determined to send immediately to the American head-quarters a deputation, which might state the true facts of the case and urge his arguments anew. For this service he selected an officer of the highest rank, General Robertson, together with the Lieutenant-Governor and the Chief Justice of New York. They were the bearers, also, of a letter from Arnold to Washington, in which Arnold repeated his explanations, and threatened measures of requital if the sentence against André should be executed; a letter which, as might have been foreseen, produced no good effect, but rather, it may be feared, the reverse.*

On the 1st of October, the three Commissioners sailed up the Hudson, in an English sloop, and with a flag of truce. Of the three, however, Washington allowed only General Robertson to land. Nor was he willing, as was wished, to confer with that officer in person; he appointed to meet him the President of the late Court of Inquiry. The English chief, accordingly, was received on shore by General Greene, and began by stating, at full length, the two points on which Sir Henry Clinton had laid stress. In reply to the first, it was observed by General Greene, that André himself, on his trial, had avowed that, in landing from the Vulture, he did not consider himself under the sanction of a flag of truce. When General Robertson alleged the testimony of Arnold, as to his having sent one out, General Greene answered drily, that the Americans would believe André in preference to Arnold. How far it might be either just or humane (for of humanity in this case we need, of course, say nothing), to turn against André an avowal made with not a friend or counsel beside him, and in the presence of only his bitterest foes, was not any further

* This letter, and most of the others bearing on the case of André, will be found in the *Essays in vol. vi. of Washington's Writings*, pp. 520—544.

in that conference discussed. General Robertson offered to exchange for the intended victim, any prisoner whom the Americans might choose. He urged that, in more than one instance, confessed and undoubted spies, the secret correspondents of Washington from the English quarters, had had their lives spared, from Sir Henry's merciful regard to the intercessions in their behalf of the American Commander. He observed that several such spies were still in Sir Henry's power. Finding his arguments, his offers, his entreaties, all alike unheeded, General Robertson said, lastly, that no military tribunal in Europe would decide the case of André to be that of a spy; and he proposed to refer the question to the judgment of General Knyphausen and the Comte de Rochambeau. Greene and Robertson then parted, the former promising only to repeat to his Chief all the representations of the latter. Early next morning, the 2nd of October, Robertson received a note from Greene, stating, in few words, that his arguments, as reported, had made no change in General Washington's opinion and determination. Another appeal, which Robertson, to leave no possible means untried, addressed in a letter direct to Washington, proved equally barren of effect.

There was one condition, it seems, and one condition only, on which Washington would have readily agreed to André's release,—that the English should give up Arnold in his place. It is astonishing (but, indeed, what part of Washington's conduct in this transaction may not excite surprise?) how such a thought should have entered such a mind; how Washington could have expected an honourable enemy to take a step so dishonourable, and so subversive of every military principle. Captain Aaron Ogden, who conveyed the letters from André and from Washington to the British posts as far as Paulus Hook, was directed to let fall this idea among the British officers; it was accordingly made known to Sir Henry Clinton, but by him was, of course and at once, rejected. The same suggestion was brought forward more directly by General Greene, in the conference with General Robertson. In his despatch to Sir Henry, Robertson declares that he replied to it only by a look of indignant rebuke.

Meanwhile André in his captivity continued serene

and self-possessed. He beguiled one of his lonesome and weary hours by making, with his pen, a sketch of himself as he sat at his prison-table. "To death he was resigned; but he solicited the privilege of dying by the musket like a soldier, and not by the cord like a felon. On the 1st of October, he addressed to Washington a touching letter with this sad request. Washington, however, so far from relenting, vouchsafed him no reply; and the prisoner was left, to the last, uncertain of his doom. His execution had been fixed for noon the next day. He was dressed in his uniform as a British officer, and walked forward with the firmness which becomes that character. It was only when he came in sight of the gallows that, by an involuntary impulse, he shrunk back. "Must I then die in this manner?" he said; but, speedily recovering himself, he added, "it will be but a momentary pang." He ascended the cart with a firm step, and bandaged his own eyes with a steady hand. At the last, when an American officer drew nigh and told him that he had an opportunity to speak if he desired it, he raised the handkerchief from his eyes, and said:—"I pray you to bear me witness that I meet my fate like a brave man." These were his last words; the signal was made, the noose fell, his limbs were convulsed for a moment, and then still for ever. Thus did the Adjutant-General of the British army in America die the death of the vilest malefactor; a death, however, which, in his circumstances, and with his character, brought no disgrace—no disgrace at least, to him.

A monument to the memory of André—WHO FELL A SACRIFICE TO HIS ZEAL FOR HIS KING AND COUNTRY—was, by command of George the Third, raised in Westminster Abbey. His remains were buried close to the place of execution. But in 1821, they were disinterred and removed to England by Mr. Buchanan, the British Consul at New York.† It was not fit, indeed, that they should rest in American ground.

* This sketch was presented by André to the officer on guard, and is now preserved in the Trumbull Gallery at Yale College. A fac-simile is given by Mr. Sparks, in his Life of Arnold.

† See an account of the disinterment, in the Ann. Register 1821, part ii. p. 133. A small plant was found growing on the grave.

From the historical narrative let us now pass to the critical examination of his fate. First, then, had Washington any good ground for relying on the judgment of the Court of Inquiry? Of whom did that Court consist? As we have already seen, of twelve American, and of two European field officers. Now, it must be borne in mind that the American Generals, at that time, were, for the most part, wholly destitute of the advantage of a liberal education. They were men drawn from the plough-handle, or from the shop-board, at their country's call. Greene himself, the President of the tribunal, had been a blacksmith by trade. These humble avocations afford no reason why such men might not always do their duty as became them in the field; why they should not sometimes acquire and display military skill; why, at the present day, their names should not be held in high honour by their countrymen. But they do afford a reason, and, as it seems to me, a strong one, why such men, having no light of study to guide them, having never probably so much as heard the names of Vattel or Puffendorf, could be no fit judges on any nice or doubtful point of national law. And by whom had they been assisted? By La Fayette, who, though for some years a trans-Atlantic General, was still only a youth of twenty-three, and who, as he tells us, had learnt little or nothing at his college. By Steuben, who had undoubtedly great knowledge and experience, but who speaking no English, while his colleagues spoke no French, was unable to discuss any controverted question with them.*

It follows then, that the verdict of such a tribunal ought to have no weight in such a case; and that Washington, far from relying upon it, was bound either to refer the question to such men as Kayphausen and Rochambeau, adjoining with them perhaps Steuben; or to ponder and decide it for himself. Had he considered it with his usual calmness and clear good sense, it seems scarcely possible that, with all the circumstances so utterly unlike, he should have pronounced the case of

* On this mutual ignorance of each other's language see the note at vol. vi. p. 164.

André to be the same as that of a common spy. And waiving for the present the disputed point as to the flag of truce, it is clear, at all events, that when André was arrested, he was travelling under the protection of a pass which Arnold, as the commander of the West Point district, had a right to give. The Americans contend that this right was forfeited, or rendered of no effect, by Arnold's treacherous designs.* Yet how hard to reconcile such a distinction with plighted faith and public law! How can we draw the line and say at what precise point the passes are to grow invalid—whether, when the treachery is in progress of execution, or when only matured in the mind, or when the mind is still wavering upon it? In short, how loose and slipshod becomes the ground if once we forsake the settled principle of recognising the safe-conducts granted by adequate authority, if once we stray forth in quest of secret motives and designs!

It has, indeed, been asserted that "Washington signed the order for André's death with great reluctance; but the army were dissatisfied, and demanded the sacrifice." This assertion, however, rests on no sufficient evidence; and were it most fully established, would not relieve the Commander-in-Chief from his legitimate responsibility. Nor can the inflexibility of Washington, in both awarding death to André, and denying him the last consolation and relief he sought—to die the death of a soldier—be vindicated, as I conceive, by any supposed necessity, at that time, of a severe example. Had Arnold, indeed, or any American taking part with Arnold, been in question, that motive might, no doubt, have justly carried

* It was related to Mr. W. Faux, on board a steam-boat in the Delaware, by two old German gentlemen, heroes of the Revolution, who, as they said, had been in camp with Major André. (April 12, 1880. *Memorable Days in America*, p. 402.) In their opinion the example of his death was "necessary and salutary." But the names of these two gentlemen are not given; and there is another part of their statement which I should be loth to admit, without the strongest corroborative testimony, that an American General (who is named) could insult the defenceless André on his way to execution, telling him:—"You die for your cowardice, and like a coward." This last surely is quite erroneous.

considerable weight. But what and could Washington hope to effect by even the utmost extremity of rigour against André? Let another accomplished soldier answer for me. "Sir Henry Clinton, in his Memoirs," says "sensible that the example, though ever so terrible and ignominious, would never deter a British officer from 'treading in the same steps, whenever the service of his country should require his exposing himself to the like danger in such a war."

It behoves us, no doubt, to ponder reverently, ere we attempt to cast any censure on a man so virtuous as Washington. Yet none of his warmest panegyrists can assert, though they sometimes imply, that his character was wholly faultless; and here, as it seems to me, we are upon its faulty point. He had, as his friends assure us, by nature strong and most angry passions; these he had curbed and quelled by a resolute exertion of his will, but he did not always prevent them from hardening into sternness. Of this we may observe some indications here and there in his private correspondence, as, for instance, in the case of the suicides at Boston. But such indications are confined to words, and addressed only to his familiar friends. Here, on the contrary, the fault appears in action. Here it gave rise to what, unless I greatly deceive myself, the intelligent classes of his countrymen will, ere long, join ours in condemning—the death-warrant of André; certainly by far the greatest, and perhaps the only blot in his most noble career.

CHAPTER LXIII.

IN England, the close of the Session was marked by another attempt to strengthen and enlarge the basis of the Ministry. During the Gordon riots some of the leaders of the Opposition had been thrown into a temporary concert with the leaders of the Government, as combining, with all their strength, against the mob attacks and mob demands. Why, then, might not the undiminished perils of the country at large invite the conflicting statesmen to a more solid and more lasting union? With these views, a month had not elapsed ere Lord North made some overtures to the friends of the Marquis of Rockingham, who sent in some proposals in return. It was found that they had considerably modified their old peremptory tone, as to the acknowledgment, by the mother-country, of her insurgent Colonies. They said, in substance, that they did not see how the troops could now be called from thence; and that, therefore, the dependence of America need not, at present, be taken into consideration. They did not desire to exclude Lord North himself, nor yet any of his colleagues, except Sandwich; but they expected that the Government should admit some of the measures which they had lately been supporting: as, the Contractors' Bill, Mr. Crewe's Bill, and great part, at least, of Mr. Burke's.

With these terms, however, as reported by Lord North to the King, his Majesty was far from contented. "The evasive reply about America," he said, "will by no means answer." He raised objections to several of the persons named for office, especially the Duke of Richmond, and he would not consent to any of the Bills desired. In consequence, Lord North found it necessary to let fall the whole negotiation. The King, at a later period, expressed a desire to regret his own pertinacity when he was obliged to suspend under far more important circumstances, and he was very anxious to see

unwelcome servants, to accept exactly the same men, and exactly the same measures.*

The Constitutional battle, therefore, recommenced; and, on the 1st of September, a Proclamation was issued to dissolve the Parliament. Near as was the approach to the Septennial period, the Opposition chiefs might compare that Dissolution to a thunder-clap, for its suddenness and surprise†; probably the better to excuse the reverses which it brought to them. Some triumphs, of course, they had. Mr. Fox, after many days' polling against Lord Lincoln, was proclaimed Member for Westminster; his colleague was Admiral Rodney. Admiral Keppel, after being flung out by the Castle influence from the borough of Windsor, was returned for the county of Surrey by the public spirit of the freeholders. But, upon the whole, the Elections went greatly in favour of the Court. Burke, above all, lost his seat at Bristol. On arriving in that city, he found the people much prepossessed against him, mainly on two grounds: first, his strenuous exertions in freeing the Roman Catholics of England from the intolerable weight of the Penal Code; and secondly, his support of the trade of Ireland, notwithstanding some instructions to the contrary from his own constituents. On both these points, as well as on some others, he delivered from the hustings a speech which is still preserved, and which may deserve to rank among the highest efforts of his eloquence. But, as the readers of by-gone controversies will often, very often, find to be the case, the same arguments which at present appear to us entirely unanswerable, produced no impression at the time. After some days of unsuccessful canvass, Burke deemed it best, by the advice of his friends, to retire from the contest, even without demanding a poll. He announced his retirement in another speech, much briefer than the former, but marked, in the highest degree, by good temper and good taste; and, adverting to the fate of Mr. Coombe, another of the candidates, who, in the midst of hopes as eager and ex-

* The King's secret letter to Lord North dated July 3. 1780, will be found in the Appendix.

† Ann. Regist. 1781, p. 141.

ertions as laborious, had been struck down by sudden death, he bade both his hearers and himself take to heart that awful lesson—"what shadows we are,* and what "shadows we pursue!" The voice of the great philosopher and statesman was, however not lost to the House of Commons. Happily for England, the borough of Malton, which he had once already represented, now, at the bidding of Lord Rockingham, spread forth its hospitable arms to receive him.*

A writer in the Annual Register for the ensuing year—perhaps Mr. Burke himself, probably, at all events, a disappointed candidate—charges the Elections of this period both with listlessness and with venality. But in some places at least, the fact was the very reverse. Thus, in Yorkshire, there arose an independent and public-spirited Association to conduct the contests. "Hitherto," said Sir George Savile, "hitherto I have been elected in Lord Rockingham's dining-room, now I am returned by my constituents!"†

Two members of old Roman Catholic families became candidates at this General Election—Charles, Earl of Surrey, eldest son of the Duke of Norfolk, and Sir Thomas Gascoigne. By a fortunate coincidence, the perception of the errors of Popery appears to have dawned upon their minds simultaneously with the wish to sit in Parliament, which, as Roman Catholics, they could not do. It is likewise remarkable, that they should have publicly abjured their former faith at the very time most likely to produce a popular and striking effect. On Sunday, the 4th of June, in the midst of the Gordon riots, they read their recantation before the Archbishop of Canterbury, and received the Sacrament from His Grace's hands.‡ In the subsequent Elections, both the new converts thrived well: Lord Surrey was returned for Carlisle, and Sir Thomas for Thirsk. •

* Some picturesque details of a Malton election, as it was in 1831, are given by Lord Jeffrey. It appears to have been conducted with a due regard to the great value of time. "In three hours and a half," he says, "I actually called at 635 doors, and shook 494 men by the hand!" (See the Memoirs by Lord Cockburn, vol. ii. p. 234.)

† Life of Wilberforce, by his Sons, vol. i. p. 57.

‡ Ann. Regist. 1780, p. 215.

The new Members elected to this Parliament numbered 113; several of high promise and of coming fame. From Stafford came Richard Brinsley Sheridan, full of eloquence and genius, and flushed with the success of his excellent compositions on the stage. From Hull came William Wilberforce; a proud name to after-times, in itself sufficient to prove that office and party are not the sole conditions of Parliamentary renown.* But besides such great accessions, there were other new Members, of far less fame indeed, yet still of some. Newport, in Cornwall, sent Lord Maitland, better known as Earl of Lauderdale; a man of great shrewdness and practical ability; at one time the detractor, at another the pupil, of Burke. Corfe Castle sent Henry Bankes; a model to any one who would be an independent country gentleman, a warning to any one who would be an historian of Rome. Lord Mahon became Member for High Wycombe, on the recommendation of Lord Shelburne. Robert Smith, afterwards Lord Carrington, began, as Member for Nottingham, a Parliamentary career of fifty-eight years; a career of no oratorical pretensions, but in a high degree conscientious, upright, and benevolent, such as well became the kinsman of Wilberforce, and the friend of Pitt.

Pitt himself, who not, in the first instance, returned to the new Parliament. He had felt a natural ambition to represent the University of Cambridge; and so high did his character stand there, that, though barely twenty-one years of age, he could contest it with fair prospects of success. He had applied to Lord Rockingham for his countenance and support; but his Lordship civilly declined it; "from the knowledge I have," he said "of several persons who may be candidates"†—persons, no doubt, of the right family connections, some nephews or some cousins of the great Whig Houses. Pitt was for

* "After a successful canvass at Hull, Mr Wilberforce repaired to London, where about three hundred Hull freemen resided in the vicinity of the river; these he entertained at suppers in the different public-houses of Wapping. . . . This election cost him between 8,000*l.* and 9,000*l.*" (*Life*, by his Sons, vol. i. p. 14.)

† See Mr. Pitt's letter, and Lord Rockingham's reply, in the *Memoirs* by Lord Albemarle, vol. ii. pp. 422, 423.

the time defeated. But only a few months afterwards, the accident of a double Return afforded him another entrance into Parliament. He was chosen for Appleby, at that time a close borough, under the control of Sir James Lowther. It appears from Pitt's private letters that the influence which wrought with Sir James on this occasion, was that of Pitt's contemporary and constant friend, the young Duke of Rutland, a son of the gallant Granby.

Buckinghamshire — where the Earldom and estates of Temple had not long since descended to George Grenville, the eldest son of the late Prime Minister — sent, as one of its representatives, his second son, Thomas Grenville. Never did the character of two brothers stand forth in bolder contrast to each other. George, second Earl Temple, and subsequently first Marquis of Buckingham, steeped, as his own letters show him, in selfishness and pride, — Thomas Grenville, a man of the kindest heart, of the gentlest and most graceful manners, of the most public-spirited intentions. In diplomacy he manifested considerable aptitude, and his abilities for public speaking, though seldom exerted, were not small. The Duke of Wellington has told me, that a speech which he heard Mr. Thomas Grenville deliver in 1807, as First Lord of the Admiralty during a few months, and in moving the Navy Estimates, was among the best and clearest statements he remembered. Thus, for high political eminence, he wanted only larger opportunities, and, perhaps, a more stirring spirit of ambition. His books — now the pride of the Museum, through his own munificent bequest — were his refuge and delight, yet not so as ever to abstract him from his friends. Born in 1755, and surviving in the fullest possession of his faculties till 1846, he formed, as it were, a link between the present and a long past age. With the same clear intelligence that had beheld the dying flashes of Lord Chatham's eloquence, or the last gleams of Lord North's wit — that had scanned with care, from day to day, the busy scenes of party contention which ensued — would he turn to counsel Mr. Gladstone, and other statesmen of rising fame, half a century removed from the former; nor can any one, even of far subordinate importance,

who was admitted to the high privilege of sharing his familiar hours, forget that calm and benignant countenance, that voice of cordial welcome, or those stores of political wisdom so cheerfully supplied.

Such are far, very far, from being the impressions of only a single friend. Thus writes one of Mr. Grenville's most attached and constant associates, the Earl of Ellesmere, in a short, but eloquent and feeling Memoir, which has hitherto, to the regret of many, remained in manuscript:—"If Providence should give me the same long tenure of unimpaired faculties as was the lot of him I mourn, the recollection of my intercourse with that wise and good man will be my enduring and best companion to the verge of that great change which I hope and pray—with all the hesitation which springs from a sense of unworthiness—may effect a restoration of that intercourse."

On the last day in October the House of Commons met to choose a Speaker. Lord George Germaine, on the part of the Government, expressed his regret that the late Speaker, Sir Fletcher Norton, had been so often disabled by illness during the last Session, and concluded by proposing in his place Mr. Charles Wolfran Cornwall, Member for Winchester. On this occasion Sir Fletcher spoke himself, and with characteristic acrimony. He could not deny his frequent illnesses, and the consequent interruptions to public business, but he asserted that the Ministers had no motive in supplanting him besides the political offence which on various questions he had given them; above all, by his memorable address to the King.* The Opposition espoused his cause, but, on a division, Mr. Cornwall was elected by 203 against 134.

Next day, the 1st of November, the Session was opened by the King. His Majesty's Speech from the Throne complained of the unprovoked aggression of the monarchies of France and Spain, but referred with

* See vol. vi. p. 139. The new Speaker, Mr. Cornwall, a lawyer by profession, had been a Lord of the Treasury since 1774. On the first offer transmitted to him, Chatham wrote to Shelburne:—"If he accepts, Government makes a very valuable and accredited instrument of real business. His character is respectable, and his manners and life amiable."—(Chatham Papers, vol. iv. p. 333.)

pleasure to the progress of his arms in the provinces of Georgia and Carolina. Amendments to the Address were moved in both Houses; in the Lords by the Marquis of Carmarthen; in the Commons by Mr. Thomas Grenville; but in both rejected: in the one case by 68 against 23; in the other by 212 against 130. These signal defeats appear to have damped the spirits of the Opposition, at least until the Christmas recess; and, large as were the Estimates, Lord North was enabled to carry them through with a high hand. For the Navy, including the marines, the House of Commons voted 90,000 men; for the army, besides the invalids at home, and besides, also, the hired Brunswickers and Hessians in America, 35,000; while the whole Supplies granted for the year 1781 exceeded the sum of 25,000,000*l*. Before the Session ended, several new Duties, as on paper and on almanacks, were imposed; but nevertheless, our National Debt steadily continued to grow.

At this period, amidst many causes for depression, the Ministers of England might exult at seeing how slight was the progress made against us by the alliance of the Northern Powers. Catherine the Second herself, in speaking to Sir James Harris, called her "Armed Neutrality" an "Armed Nullity;" and Prince Potemkin, as the friend of Harris, said to him, "Content yourself with destroying its effects; the resolution itself is immovable. As it was conceived in mistake, and perfected by vanity, so it is maintained by pride and stubbornness. You well know the hold of these passions on a female mind, and if you attempt to loose you will only tighten the knot."* The Czarina, it appears, while upholding her new system in words, still cherished some feeling of friendship to the English, and was reluctant to carry matters to extremity against them. Even some months afterwards, when the Armed Neutrality had been joined by other Powers, as by the King of Prussia and the Emperor of Germany, it proved barren of results, and little more than an imposing name.

* Sir James Harris to Lord Stormont, December 24 1780. (*Malinesbury Papers*, vol. i. p. 351.) For the King of Prussia's share in these transactions see especially the *Leben's Geschichte* of Preuss, vol. iv. pp. 119—131.

Another motive for some private rejoicing might be found in the apparent anxiety of France for peace. In December of this year M. Necker, as the leading Minister at Paris, addressed a secret letter to Lord North, as the leading Minister in London; it was headed *POUR VOS SEULS, MY LORD*, and it expressed, in strong terms, a wish to treat. The basis which it proposed for the negotiation was a truce, as might be stipulated of greater or of less extent, during which the Belligerent parties in America should each remain in possession of the territories which each already held. But when these conditions were submitted to George the Third, they seemed to His Majesty altogether inadmissible. "Independency of the Colonies," he said, "whether under its apparent name or a truce, is the same in reality." Thus was M. Necker's overture declined.*

But though the French Ministers might sincerely sue for peace, the French nation—as customary with that martial race—were well pleased at the progress of war. The officers coming on leave from America, or known to be zealous for her interests, such as La Fayette, were warmly welcomed. Franklin was, on all sides, much courted and caressed at Paris, and great entertainments in the seaport towns were given to Paul Jones whenever he sailed in with his English prizes.†

Unhappily, at this same period, Holland, our old ally, was added to the ranks of our open enemies. It so chanced that early in September the *Vestal* frigate, commanded by Captain Keppel, and cruising on the banks of Newfoundland, took one of the American packets. Among the passengers was Mr. Henry Laurens, lately President of Congress, and then bound on a diplomatic

* M. Necker's secret letter, dated December 1. 1780, and the King's thereupon to Lord North, on the 18th of the same month—both derived from the North Papers—will be found in the Appendix to this volume.

† Some of the compliments paid to Paul Jones were; it must be owned, sufficiently strange. Thus, at Nantes, one of the speakers at the entertainment compared him, by way of praise, to a coquette, "who enchains those who dare attack her, without being captured herself!" (Letter from Nantes in the *London Courant*, July 14. 1780.)

mission to the Hague. The packet containing his papers had been thrown overboard, but its bulk keeping it afloat for a short time, it was saved by the boldness and skill of a British seaman. On arriving in London, Mr. Laurens was brought before the assembled Ministers of State, and on refusing to answer their interrogatories, was committed a close prisoner to the Tower. Little other information was obtained from him beyond the avowal of his name. But this defect was amply supplied by the examination of his papers. Among them was found the plan of a treaty of alliance between the United States of America and the United States of Holland. It was dated so far back as September, 1778, before we could have given any plea for quarrel to the Dutch, and it had been signed by the express orders of Van Berkel, the Pensionary, and other chief magistrates of Amsterdam. The States General, indeed, had not yet ratified it, and there had been some disagreement on some of its details; but to these Mr. Laurens, in his mission, was empowered to put a finishing touch.

Holland, at this period, was divided by two great parties: the party of the Stadtholder, the Prince of Orange, and the party inclining to France, of which the Pensionary, Van Berkel, was among the principal members. It was this party which had, for some time past, gained the upper hand; it was this which had been so industrious to inflame the disputes with England; it was this which was now upon the point of adding the Republic to the alliance of the Armed Neutrality. Under such circumstances, and as dealing with determined enemies, the Ministers of England deemed it the truest policy to maintain the firmest tone. Sir Joseph Yorke, still our ambassador at the Hague, was instructed to press the matter in repeated memorials. He required that the States General should immediately disavow the conduct of the States of Holland. Further, he insisted upon the punishment of Van Berkel, and his accomplices, as disturbers of the public peace, and violators of the rights of nations. Had the Stadtholder been a man of energy, he might perhaps, on this occasion, have wrested from his opponents the reins of power. As it was, the French party, continuing supreme, and returning none but eva-

sive answers to England, Sir Joseph was recalled, and Count Welderen dismissed; and, on the 20th of December, a Déclaration of War, in the King's name, was issued against the Dutch.

The Parliament, at this time, had already adjourned. When it met again in the January following, a Royal Message, to announce the war, was delivered to both Houses. The Opposition, deeming the opportunity favourable, raised an angry cry. They complained that the language of Sir Joseph Yorke, in his former Memorials, had been harsh and overbearing. They alleged that the paper seized with Mr. Laurens was no more than the draft, or project, of a treaty. Two amendments to the Address of Thanks were moved in the House of Commons; the one by Lord John Cavendish, the other by Lord Mahon, but they were both rejected; nor did any better success attend the Duke of Richmond in the House of Lords.

Early in February, this year, there came on before Lord Mansfield, as Chief Justice, and on a charge of High Treason, the trial of Lord George Gordon. The public mind had certainly much cooled since the numerous convictions in July, 1780, and the Noble prisoner was no doubt far less criminal than silly. Still, however, it was highly fortunate for him that his defence depended on that most able advocate whose just fame will be ever blended with the records of this cause.

Thomas Erskine was born at Edinburgh, in 1750. He was the youngest son of the Earl of Buchan; a nobleman of most ancient lineage, but, at that time, of most slender fortune. Though brought up at the High School, we find the great forensic orator that was to be still at twelve years old ignorant of grammar; as one line of his letters may show: "In the time of the vacation Harry and me writes theines."* Two years later he went to sea, as a midshipman, and sailed for the West Indies. Disgusted at the want of advancement, he left that profession at eighteen, and expended his whole patrimony in the purchase of an Ensign's Commission.

* Letter, August 11. 1762, as published by Lord Campbell. The family of Erskine had just then removed for cheapness to St. Andrew's.

Nor did he mend his fortunes by his marriage as a stripling of twenty; his bride being a young lady of great merit, but no money. Next he was sent abroad on service, to join the garrison of Minorca, where he remained two years. One of his duties at Port Mahon, during the Chaplain's illness and furlough, was to read prayers, and preach on Sundays to his men; thus, in after life, he was fond of saying, that he had been by turns a sailor and a soldier, a parson and a lawyer!

On his return from Minorca, Erskine was appointed a Lieutenant, and also published an Essay on the abuses of the army. Perhaps he may have thought (for he was still a very young man) that such a pamphlet would tend to his promotion. But he had no money to purchase higher commissions, and grew weary of his lodging life in country quarters. At this period, his accidental presence at a trial, and some attentions from Lord Mansfield, the presiding Judge, decided his future fate. He resolved to quit the army, and embrace the profession of the law. Selling his commission, and taking rooms in Trinity College, Cambridge, he contrived at the same time to keep his terms at Lincoln's Inn. All this while he was enduring great privation, from his narrow means and increasing family. "I used, then," he said, "to live, 'on tripe and cow-heel.'"

Erskine was called to the Bar in 1778. At first he saw but little prospect of business. It was the accident of his having been bred to the navy that obtained for him a one guinea retainer in the great cause of Captain Thomas Baillie. That officer, a deserving veteran, was Lieutenant-Governor of Greenwich Hospital, and, as such, observed and desired to correct some recent abuses in its management. He complained especially, and with good reason, of Lord Sandwich, for the great number of landsmen whom he had placed in the Hospital, as rewards for their Electioneering services. Captain Baillie had presented successive petitions to various persons in authority, praying for inquiry and redress. Finding these unheeded, he printed and circulated, certainly in no mild terms, a statement of the case. For this offence he was immediately suspended from his office by the Board of Admiralty, and the First Lord, himself hanging

back, incited the inferior officers at Greenwich, who were likewise glanced at, to file a criminal information against the author for a libel. When, in November, 1778, the cause came on for trial before the Judges, Erskine, as Counsel for the Captain, found, to his dismay, four other Counsel on the same side, all senior to himself. As it chanced, however, the other four took up the whole of the first day, and enabled Erskine, under favourable circumstances, to begin the next. Then it was that, from the back row, a young gentleman, unknown as yet in face or name, was seen to rise, and in a modest yet firm tone delivered a powerful address. He had already reached his conclusion, which he intended to wind up with one or two remarks upon Lord Sandwich. "Indeed," he said, "Lord Sandwich has, in my mind, acted 'such a part ——.' Here, in the words of the Report, Lord Mansfield, observing the Counsel heated with his subject, and growing personal on the First Lord of the Admiralty, told him that Lord Sandwich was not before the Court. Undismayed, unfaltering, Erskine burst forth with this rejoinder: "I know that he is not 'formally before the Court, but for that very reason I 'will bring him before the Court. He has placed these 'men in the front of the battle, in hopes to escape under 'their shelter, but I will not join in battle with them: 'their vices, though screwed up to the highest pitch of 'human depravity, are not of dignity enough to vindicate 'the combat with me. I will drag him to light who is 'the dark mover behind this scene of iniquity. . . . If 'he continues to protect the prosecutors, in spite of the 'evidence of their guilt, which has excited the abhor- 'rence of the numerous audience who crowd this Court, '—if he keeps this innocent man suspended, or dares to 'turn that suspension into a removal,—I shall then not 'scruple to declare him an accomplice in their guilt, a 'shameless oppressor, a disgrace to his rank, and a 'traitor to his trust!"

In a similar strain of impassioned eloquence he went on to exclaim: "Fine and imprisonment! The man 'deserves a palace, instead of a prison, who prevents 'the palace built by the public bounty of his country 'dom being converted into a dungeon, and who sacra-

"sices his own security to the interests of humanity and "virtue." Finally, their Lordships discharged the Rule with costs; and the young advocate, having thus prevailed, walked back through the Hall amidst a roar of congratulation and applause. A very competent judge (in both senses of the word) declares that, all the circumstances considered, this was the most wonderful forensic effort of which we have any account in our annals.* When Erskine was afterwards asked how he had the courage to stand up so boldly against Lord Mansfield, of whom all the other Counsel were in awe, he answered, that he thought his little children were plucking his robe, and that he heard them saying, "Now, father, is the time to get us bread."

From that day, though still only by degrees, the tide of business flowed in upon Erskine; and his politics inclining to the side of Opposition, it was from them that his briefs were most commonly derived. In 1779, he was one of Admiral Keppel's Counsel at the memorable Court Martial held at Portsmouth for thirty-two days.† Here, again, Erskine's knowledge of naval phrases and naval affairs was of signal service both to his client and himself. At the close, succeeding to his wishes, the generous Admiral sent him a munificent gift of 1,000*l*. In great glee, Erskine hastened to a family near London, with whom he lived on familiar terms, and showing them his wealth, exclaimed, "VOILA! the nonsuit of cow-beef, my good friends!"

At the trial of Lord George Gordon, in February, 1781, Erskine, as Counsel for his Lordship, found himself junior to Lloyd Kenyon. This was a worthy man, and excellent lawyer, deservedly raised both to the Bench and to the Peerage. But he was wholly destitute of eloquence, and in opening Lord George's defence, delivered a most ineffective speech. Under these circumstances, Erskine, contrary to the common rule, obtained permission to defer his own address until after

* Lord Campbell's *Lives of the Chancellors*, vol. vi. p. 396. See also a note to the *State Trials*, vol. xxi. p. 31. In 1779 the case of Captain Baillie led to some further proceedings in the House of Lords.

† See vol. vi. of this History, p. 257.

the evidence for the prisoner had been closed. He rose soon after midnight, and quickly dispelled all feeling of weariness from all those who heard him, as he, with consummate skill, combined some passionate bursts of glowing oratory with a chain of the closest argument. Then, for the first and only time in our legal annals, did an advocate, addressing a Court of Justice, presume to use an oath. Erskine had been alleging whatever proofs the case could afford of his client's good and peaceful intentions; and when he had related how, in the midst of the disturbances, Lord George had gone to Buckingham House, and asked to see the King, and how he had told the Secretary of State, Lord Stormont, whom alone he succeeded in seeing, that he would do his best to quell the riots; on completing this recapitulation, Erskine thus broke forth:—"I say, by God, that man "is a ruffian who shall, after this, presume to build upon "such honest, artless conduct as an evidence of guilt." So well did the voice, the eye, the face, assist these words—so happily did the words chime in with the high-wrought feelings of the hearers—that instead of being shrunk from as profane, or rebuked as indecorous, they seemed rather to impart a tone of religious exaltation; and thus was the daring experiment crowned with complete success.*

Erskine having ended, and the Solicitor-General replied, the case was summed up by Lord Mansfield in remarks by no means favourable to the prisoner. The Jury withdrew for half an hour, but at a quarter past five in the morning brought back to the thronged and anxious Court their verdict of NOT GUILTY. There were still, in Scotland at least, some partisans left to Lord George, to rejoice at his acquittal, and subscribe nearly 500*l.* towards his expenses. But the joy extended further. It was felt on constitutional grounds by many who had not the slightest political leaning to the silly young fanatic. "I am glad," said Dr. Johnson, "Lord

* See the remarks in the Edinburgh Review, No. xxxi. p. 108., and Lord Campbell's Chancellors, vol. vi. p. 410. Lord Stormont had been *subpena'd*, and had appeared as a witness, to give, in Lord George's defence, an account of his call at Buckingham House on Wednesday, the 7th of June. (State Trials, vol. xxi. p. 571.)

"George Gordon has escaped, rather than a precedent should be established of hanging a man for constructive treason."*

From this time forward, and for many years, the career of Erskine at the Bar was one of transcendent genius and success. Spontaneous as his gift of eloquence might seem, he had not neglected (how few great orators have!) early studies for its cultivation. The two years during which he had been shut up in Minorca were, it soon appeared, the most improving of his life. There he had carefully imbued himself with the principal classic writers of the English language. Dryden and Pope he had there, in some measure, learnt by heart. But his principal favourites, as we are told, were Shakspeare and Milton; and above all, as we may presume, the noble speeches in both. His knowledge was indeed confined, or nearly so, to his native tongue; but within that range he had ever at command some apt passage to recite, and had formed for himself, with especial care, a pure and idiomatic diction. By such means he had gradually unfolded and matured that rare gift of eloquence, which, as one of its greatest masters so finely says in its praise, can never be simulated, though philosophy may.† The main character of his forensic style was a most vehement earnestness in striving to persuade; an earnestness espousing, in all its points, the position of his client, and bearing down every thing before it. All those who heard him at the Bar, concur in saying, that his fervid eloquence was in no small degree assisted by his expressive features, and, above all, by his speaking eye. "Juries have declared," says Lord Brougham, "that they felt it impossible to remove their looks from him, when he had riveted, and as it were fascinated, them by his first glance." In another branch of his duty as an advocate, namely, in the examination of witnesses, his skill was likewise celebrated, and formed one more element of his merited success. Never did his

* Boswell's Life of Johnson, under the date of April 6. 1785.

† Quintilian, Instit. lib. xii. c. 3. "You have read Quintilian," says Lord Chesterfield to his son; "the best book in the world to form an orator; pray read *Cicero de Oratore*, the best book in the world to finish one." (November 24. 1749.)

fame at the Bar rise higher than during the State Trials of 1794, when, by his genius and exertions, he obtained verdicts of acquittal in the teeth of a strong Government, and rescued, as his partisans believed, the public liberties from danger. As he left the Courts on the last night the exulting populace took the horses from his carriage, and, amidst bonfires and acclamations, drew him home. Twenty years afterwards, "an Elector of Westminster," one of those who had been harnessed to his wheels, thus in a public letter addressed him: "My Lord, you should have died when you descended from the triumph of that memorable day. The timely end, which is the sole protection against the reverses of fortune, would have preserved you from that more lamentable change which could have been occasioned only by yourself." Bitter words — the more bitter because true. Alas! for what scenes of failure and of folly was that great career prolonged until, as their consummation, and even beyond the date of this reproof, we find Erskine steal down, a septuagenary lover, to Gretna Green; there, to contract — his face concealed in a woman's bonnet, and unattended by a single friend — an ignominious marriage.

The genius of Erskine at the Bar is, indeed, the more remarkable, since that was its only sphere. In every other study or endeavour of his life we find nothing but unsuccessful exertion. He failed as a speaker in the House of Commons. He failed as a speaker in the House of Lords. He failed as Chancellor in the able administration of the law. He failed in the prudent care of his private property. He failed as a poet; he failed as a prose writer; he failed as a pleasant member of the social circle. The reason seems to be, that an advocate pleading at the Bar must perforce speak mainly of his client and cause. In any other sphere of action it is possible for him to speak mainly of himself. And the principal fault at every period of Erskine's mind was a most craving and ravenous vanity. This soon became his by-word, not only among his enemies but among his friends. COUNSELLOR EGO grew to be his common nickname. Once we find an apology in a newspaper for breaking off the report of one of his speeches at a public

dinner, because, as they said, unhappily their stock of capital I's was quite exhausted. On another occasion, in 1812, when on a visit at Lord Jersey's seat of Middleton, we find him described as follows by Lord Byron, who was another of the guests: "Erskine, too! Erskine was there, good, but intolerable. . . . He would read 'his own verses, his own paragraphs, and tell his 'own stories again and again; and then the Trial by Jury! I almost wished it abolished, for I sat next him at dinner; and as I had read his public speeches, there was no occasion to repeat them to me.'"

The Session of Parliament, which had commenced on the 1st of November, 1780, continued—at that period of our annals a most unusual protraction—till the 18th of July, 1781. Within that time the Opposition took great pains, but made no progress. Burke brought in, for the second time, his measure of Economical Reform, which, after long debate, was thrown out upon the Second Reading. The Bills for disfranchising revenue-officers and excluding contractors from the House of Commons were again introduced by Sir Philip Jennings Clerke, and by Mr. Crewe, but were again rejected. The same fate was shared by two motions tending to peace with America; the mover of the first being Hartley, and the mover of the second, Fox. Great complaints were also made of the terms upon which the loan for the year, amounting to 12,000,000*l.*, had been granted. A rise in the new stock, to the amount of 10 per cent., was held forth as an irrefragable proof of corruption in the Minister. The principal motions on this subject came from Fox and Sir George Savile, the former bringing to it the utmost ingenuity and powers of language, and the latter all the weight of his unsuspected independence; but neither with the least success, so far as numbers were concerned.

Another subject which was much discussed in this Session arose from the public meetings and petitions in the last. Committees had been formed in several counties to promote measures of Reform, and they now

* MS. "Paper-book" by Lord Byron, begun at Ravenna in 1821, and now in the possession of John Murray, Esq.

associated to send delegates to London. By a stroke of policy in the framers of the scheme, some men already in Parliament, as Fox, Fitzpatrick, Lord Mahon, were placed in the list of delegates and combined with others wholly new to public life. In some cases at least these gentlemen appear to have represented the ardour of a few rather than the inclination of the many. It was publicly stated in the House of Commons, by Sir Francis Basset, member for Barnstaple, that at the meeting in Devonshire to appoint the delegates, there were not above twenty persons present, although the county contained 13,000 freeholders.* Allow even 200 instead of twenty, and how vast a disproportion remains! The political weight of such men as Fox was of course not altered by their imaginary delegation; but of the more common class, when they met in London, we may readily conceive the bustling self-importance. Who in this city has not seen some provincial orator and oracle, come up for the first time to Parliament, swelling and heaving with the consciousness of his Town-hall triumphs—full of surprise that the Prime Minister has not yet asked to be presented to him—and looking round with an angry scowl when he fails to find at his approach the other Members reverentially make way?—The delegates of 1781 lost no time in graciously assuring Mr. Burke of their especial good opinion, and in taking his measure of Economical Reform under their peculiar care. That measure being rejected by the House of Commons, thirty-two of the delegates (not all, since some judged the step to exceed their proper powers) sent up a petition of their own, claiming redress of grievances. Sir George Savile, as member for the chief of the associated counties, spoke in their behalf, and moved that their petition should be considered in Committee—a motion which the Government successfully opposed. The debate on this occasion turned in no small degree on the unconstitutional character of these pretended representatives.† Certain it is that there have been periods in our annals when the

* Debate of May 8. 1781. (Parl. Hist. vol. xxii. p. 157.) This statement, which, to its full extent, does indeed appear incredible, was contradicted the same evening by Sir George Younge, himself a delegate.

continued abode in London of men claiming the name and authority of provincial delegates, might have been fraught with inconvenience at least, if not with danger; and it is well, therefore, that at such times a preventive has been applied, and a weight thrown into the opposite scale, by the salutary heaviness of the tavern bills.

In this Session both Sheridan and Pitt spoke several times. The first attempt of Sheridan was upon his own election, which was controverted. He was heard with attention, but was thought to have failed, and when he afterwards went up with much anxiety to his friend, Mr. Woodfall, the printer, who was sitting in the gallery, and asked his opinion, Woodfall replied, with honest frankness:—"I am, sorry to say that I do not think that this is your line." Sheridan rested his head upon his hand for a few minutes, and then vehemently cried: "It is in me, however, and"—here he added an oath—"it shall come out!"* And so it proved. Before the Session closed he had not only retrieved his reputation, but exalted it, and given good earnest of his future fame.

Pitt's first speech was in support of Burke's measure of Economical Reform. With a voice clear and sonorous, with a manner removed alike from bashfulness and from presumption, with an ever-ready flow of well-selected words, he astonished the House, by displaying, at his outset, all the ease, and all the excellences of a practised orator. It was felt at once, with a reverent remembrance of his father, that in him that father's genius was renewed. All the chief men upon the Opposition side—none more conspicuously than Fox—were warm in their congratulations.† Pitt addressed the House a second time, and with great success, upon the Bill for continuing the Commission of Public Accounts. But his third was his principal speech this Session. It was in favour of Fox's motion for a Committee on the American War. Pitt being here called up by some misrepresentation of his father's sentiments, took the occasion, after vindi-

* Life of Sheridan by Moore, vol. i. p. 348.

† A traditional story on this subject is preserved by Lord John Russell in his *Memorial of Fox*, vol. i. p. 262.

cating them, to declare his own. "For my part," he said, "I am persuaded and will affirm that it is a most "accursed, wicked, barbarous, cruel, unnatural, unjust, "and diabolical war. It was conceived in injustice; it "was nurtured and brought forth in folly; its footsteps "were marked with blood, slaughter, persecution, devastation!" It is remarkable that when Pitt had concluded in this strain of impassioned eloquence, he was answered by Henry Dundas, then Lord Advocate, in after years the closest of his friends. It is also remarkable to what a pitch, even previous to this last and chief of his efforts in this Session, the renown of the young statesman had already risen. Some days before Fox's motion we find Mr. Wilberforce write as follows to one of his Yorkshire correspondents:—"The papers will "have informed you how Mr. William Pitt, second son "of the late Lord Chatham, has distinguished himself; "he comes out as his father did, a ready-made orator; "and I doubt not but that I shall one day or other see "him the first man in the country. His famous speech, "however, delivered the other night (on the Public "Accounts) did not convince me, and I staid in with the "old fat fellow (Lord North): by the way, he grows "every day fatter!"*

While Pitt was thus rising into fame, Fox, in some measure, lost ground: not, indeed, by any eclipse of his splendid talents, but by the continued irregularities of his private life. Some of these are described by Horace Walpole, now well stricken in years, yet lively as ever in his strain:—"I had been to see if Lady Ailesbury "was come to town. As I came up St. James's Street, "I saw a cart and porters at Charles's door—coppers "and old chests of drawers loading. In short, his success "at Faro has awakened his host of creditors and "one of them has actually seized and carried off his "goods, which did not seem worth removing. As I returned, full of this scene, whom should I find sauntering "by my own door but Charles? He came up, and "talked to me at the coach window on the Marriage

* Letter to B. Thompson, Esq. of Hull, June 9. 1781, published in Wilberforce's Life, by his Sons.

“ Bill with as much SANG-FROID as if he knew nothing of what had happened. The more marvellous Fox’s parts are, the more one is provoked at his follies, which comfort so many rascals and blockheads.”*

The military operations of the year commenced within the first days of January by a second descent of the French upon the island of Jersey. Their force was of 800 men: their chief, the Baron de Rullecourt. Major Corbet, the Lieutenant-Governor, upon the English side, was taken prisoner; and agreed, as such, though without valid powers, to sign a capitulation; for which shameful conduct he was afterwards brought to trial, and cashiered. Happily, Major Pierson, on whom the command devolved, a young officer of only five and twenty, was of other mould. He rallied the troops; he attacked the invaders, who had seized the town, and were concentrated in the market-place; he slew many, and compelled the rest to surrender. The French chief was mortally wounded; and Pierson also, to the great grief of the islanders, fell dead at the moment of victory by nearly the last shot that the enemy fired.

In the course of April, Admiral Darby, at the head of the grand fleet, afforded succour to the garrison of Gibraltar, once more reduced to dire extremity by the long-continued siege. Having landed his stores, in spite of every opposition from the Spanish batteries and gun-boats, he sailed back to the Channel, while the besiegers resumed their operations with even greater ardour than before. But, besides this attack of the rock-fortress — the Mountain and the Key, as its emblem declares it — the French and Spaniards had another cherished object in view. Towards midsummer, the Brest fleet, sailing to the Mediterranean, and joined by a squadron from Cadiz, conveyed, beyond the Straights, a well concerted expedition to invade the island of Minorca. The troops of both nations were upwards of 12,000 men; at their head the French Duke de Crillon. The disembarkation, and the entrance into the town of Port Mahon, were effected without difficulty. On our part, to maintain St. Philip’s Castle, there were only two English, and as

* Letter to Conway, May 31. 1781.

many Hanoverian, regiments, all much reduced by sickness; but our chief was the late Governor of Quebec, Lieutenant-General James Murray, a veteran of tried spirit and ability. Next under him was serving the old antagonist of Junius, Sir William Draper, whose sword was sharper than his pen.

By the orders of the Court of Madrid, and to avoid the labours and losses of a siege, De Crillon wrote, secretly, to the English Governor, offering him, as the price of his surrender, a present of 100,000*l.* and a commission in either the French or Spanish service. The reply of Murray breathes the spirit of honest indignation, and would have been better still, had he forbore from bragging of his own, Lord Elibank's, high race. Here are his expressions: "When your brave ancestor was desired, by his Sovereign, to assassinate the Duke of Guise, he returned the answer which you should have done when the King of Spain charged you to assassinate the character of a man whose birth is as illustrious as your own, or that of the Duke of Guise. I can have no other communication with you but in arms. If you have any humanity, pray send clothing to your unfortunate prisoners in my possession; leave it at a distance to be taken up for them; because I will admit of no contact for the future but such as is hostile in the most immoderate degree." * These were not mere empty words. So resolute was Murray's defence, that, far superior as were the enemy, both in numbers and resources, the year had closed before they were able to make any effectual progress.

The French and Spanish grand fleet, after escorting the Minorca armament to near its destination, steered their course to the British channel, and threatened the British coasts. According to the accounts received in

* On receiving this reproof De Crillon wrote a second note, as though ashamed—and justly—of his first. "Your letter places us each in his proper station. It confirms me in the esteem I have always had for you. I accept with pleasure your last proposition." (October 16. 1781.) The answer of the older Crillon to the King of France had been, that he was ready to challenge the Duke of Guise, and to fight, but not to murder him. (Sismondi, *Histoire des Français*, vol. xx. p. 459.)

England, they amounted to forty-nine sail of the line, while Admiral Darby had at that time only twenty-one. On learning the enemy's approach, and, on considering his own disparity of force, he judiciously withdrew into Torbay, and there awaited an attack. Count de Guichen, the French Admiral, was for at once pursuing and engaging him. "Now, at last," he cried, "these English will be caught as in a net!" But several of his own flag-officers, together with all the Spaniards, dissented from his views; so they remained at sea, hoping to intercept the merchantmen upon their voyage homeward. It soon appeared, however, that their own ships, more especially the Spanish ones, were, in many cases, neither sound nor yet well manned. Some hard gales, at the beginning of September, reduced them to great distress; and, relinquishing any further enterprise, they found it necessary to sail back to their own ports.*

At nearly the same period, Admiral Hyde Parker, who, with some ships of war, was escorting a large merchant fleet from the Baltic, fell in, near the Dogger Bank, with another convoy and another squadron of Holland. A conflict ensued, recalling the remembrance of the hard-fought and doubtful battles between the two navies, in the reign of Charles the Second. It is plain from this, says a contemporary, that those nations contend with the greatest eagerness whose interest it is not to contend at all.† In the Dogger Bank action, the loss on each side was great, though greatest on the Dutch; but the honour of the day was equally divided. The two fleets, both, in great measure, disabled, lay to for some time to repair, after which the Dutch Admiral — his name was Zoutman — bore away for the Texel, a movement which the British chief was in no condition to oppose.

When Admiral Parker himself returned with his shattered squadron to the Nore, he had the honour to receive a visit from the King on board his ship, and was gratified with marked expressions of the Royal favour. As

* On these movements in the Channel see some letters from Mr. Fox, who was then visiting at Saltram. These letters are published by Lord John Russell in his "Memorials," but erroneously transferred to the year 1779. (vol. i. pp. 281—285.)

† *Annals Regist.* 1782, part i. p. 120.

was rumoured, he said, in reply: "Sir, I wish your Majesty younger officers, and better ships. As for me, I am grown too old for the service." It is certain that he persisted in resigning his command; and it is probable that discontent with the conduct of the Admiralty Board had some share, at least, in his determination. He complained, it is said, of the ill state, or insufficient number, of his ships. Yet how, with so many foes around us, could we send forth a large fleet on every side?

In the West Indies Admiral Rodney had returned to his post from New York, before the close of the preceding year. He failed in an attempt to recover St. Vincent's, but on learning the declaration of war against Holland, undertook a more important enterprise. Taking on board a body of troops under General Vaughan, he surrounded with his fleet the Dutch island of St. Eustatia. Strongly fortified as it was by nature,—it had, indeed, but a single landing-place,—the consternation of so sudden an attack induced the commandant, M. de Graaf, to surrender at the first summons. The value of the capture was immense, and such as to astonish the captors themselves. Above 150 merchantmen, some of them richly laden, were taken in the bay, besides six ships of war; and another convoy, which had already sailed, was pursued and brought back by Rodney's orders. This, however, was but part of the prize. The whole island seemed to be only one vast magazine. Not only were the storehouses filled with goods of various kinds, but the beach was covered with hogsheds of sugar and tobacco; and the value of the whole property seized on shore was loosely calculated at upwards of £3,000,000.* Great part of the property was found to belong to British subjects; yet it did not seem on that account deserving of exemption. Sir George Rodney saw grounds to bring a public charge against his resident countrymen, as also their correspondents on the other West India islands; that, regardless of the duty which they owed their Sovereign,

* For the capture of St. Eustatia, compare the statements in the Annual Register (1781, part i. p. 101.) with the speeches of Burke, Rodney, and Vaughan, in the House of Commons. (Debate, December 4. 1781.) Rodney's correspondence at this time is published in his Life by Mundy. (vol. ii. pp. 6—108.)

they had contracted with the enemy to supply him with provisions and naval stores. For this reason the Admiral stood firm against the numerous applications to have the property restored, which came both from the merchants and from the Assembly of St. Kitts', enforced by Mr. Glanville, their Attorney-General.

It is due to Rodney to observe, that, in this his vigorous determination, he had no thought of lucre to himself; he desired only to avenge the public wrong. "It is a vast island of thieves, a nest of vipers," Rodney writes. At the same time, in his despatch to the Secretary of State, he says, expressly: "The whole I have seized for the King and the State, and I hope will go to the public revenue of my country. I do not look upon myself as entitled to one sixpence, neither do I desire it." But his severity, although it took its rise in an honest and becoming indignation, exceeded perhaps the bounds of justice, and certainly produced many individual cases of grievance and hardship. Soon afterwards it became the subject both of litigation in the English Courts, and of debates in the English Parliament. The first severity, it was alleged, had been followed by others, when the Americans, and likewise the Jews, who were both numerous and wealthy at St. Eustatia, had, by a summary edict, been banished and transported from the island. Of these Americans, however, some at least had shown far more of skill than of good faith. They had been avowedly the agents and correspondents of the insurgent Colonies; yet, no sooner was the island taken, than they boldly claimed protection as subjects of the British Crown. The case of the Jews was considerably harder; yet the edge of the complaint made on their behalf was much deadened when General Vaughan, a plain, blunt soldier, spoke as follows in the House of Commons: "As to the Jews, I had ordered a ship to carry them to St. Thomas's, at their own request; and after they had been taken to St. Kitts' without my knowledge I ordered their houses and property to be restored to them; and that they were well satisfied with my conduct, will appear from an address presented to me from their synagogue." *

* Parl. Hist. vol. xxii. p. 782.

Great as were the captures at St. Eustatia, they did not enrich the British treasury. Part was granted by the King to the fleet and land-forces as prize; part on its way home was taken by a squadron from France; part being sold on the spot was purchased by subjects of the neutral Powers; and thus, it is said, in many cases was still conveyed, and even at cheaper rates, to the enemy. The loss to the Dutch, however, was immense, nor was it confined to this quarter alone. Their shipping up the rivers Demerara and Essequibo was captured under the very guns of their forts by a squadron of privateers, mostly equipped from Bristol; and the alarmed inhabitants hastened to surrender to the Governor of Barbadoes, as to a more legitimate authority, the settlements themselves.

In Europe the French had for some time been preparing, and early in this year they sent forth a formidable armament, in aid of their distant dependencies. That armament proceeded some way into the Atlantic, and there parted; the first division under the Bailli de Suffren, for the East Indies; the second under Comte de Grasse, for the West. De Grasse, on his arrival, assumed the chief command of the French fleet; and, by the ships which he brought, had made it far superior to the English. There was a partial action, or, rather, a distant cannonade, between the English vanguard, commanded by Sir Samuel Hood, and some of the French ships; but Rodney was not able to attack their main body with any prospect of advantage. Nor could he prevent the Marquis de Bouillé, the Governor-General of Martinico, from invading several of the English islands. The Marquis was repulsed from St. Lucia, but he prevailed against Tobago. Even there, his success was, in some part, due to a not very soldierly expedient; every four hours he set on fire four plantations, declaring that he should continue to do so, until the inhabitants surrendered. At the close of summer, Rodney, whom the climate had afflicted with a painful ailment, availed himself of the King's permission to return home, and recruit his health. He left the command with another excellent officer, Sir Samuel Hood, while De Grasse, who had received a further reinforcement, profited by his

great superiority, and stationing some of his ships at Martinico, sailed, with the rest, to the Chesapeake.

Upon the whole, in the West Indies, as in the East, and as in the European seas, the honour of the British flag,—standing, singly, against all the other chief navies of the world,—was worthily maintained. How little, at that time, need we have feared either the formidable array of the hostile Powers, or the high-sounding alliance of the Armed Neutrality, had any hope remained of winning back our own insurgent Colonies!

CHAPTER LXIV.

FROM New York Sir Henry Clinton had, as he hoped, effected a diversion in favour of Cernwallis, by a descent upon the coast of Virginia. Before the close of the preceding year, some ships, with about 1,600 troops on board, had been despatched upon that service. The command had been given to General Arnold, but he was instructed to consult, on all occasions, two most deserving officers sent with him, Colonels Dundas and Simeoe. Even before they sailed, they began to feel the evils of the contract and commissary systems of that time. Thus writes Colonel Simeoe: "In the embarkation from New York, the horse-vessels were very bad, infamously provided, and totally unfit for service: in consequence, above forty horses had to be thrown overboard."*

Arnold, with his first division, sailed up the river James, made good his landing without difficulty, and destroyed in divers places the public stores and tobacco magazines. Next, according to his instructions, he repaired to Portsmouth, on Elizabeth river, where he took post and threw up trenches. His progress thus far had been much assisted by a mutiny at that very juncture among the American troops. For a long time past they had endured the greatest distresses for lack of pay, of clothing, and even of food; and their repeated complaints to Congress had met with no attention, or at least with no redress. On New Year's day then, about 1,300 of the Pennsylvanians, who were stationed near Morristown, rose in insurrection, and discarded their General, Wayne, and their other officers, killing one Captain, and mortally wounding another. They seized six field-pieces, with which they commenced their march to Philadelphia, as to the seat of Congress, declaring that

* Journal of the Queen's Rangers, p. 115.

they would obtain justice for themselves. It was natural for the English commander to expect to derive advantage from their revolt; and accordingly he sent them two emissaries with some tempting proposals. But the insurgents (as these men might in a twofold sense be called) had no idea, in their own phrase, of "turning Arnolds." They came to terms with a Committee of Congress, which met then at Trenton, and, giving up Sir Henry's agents, allowed them to be changed as spies.*

Freed from this alarm, and from another of the same kind in the New Jersey troops, Washington was able to turn his attention to Virginia. He sent in that direction the Marquis de la Fayette, with a detachment of 1,200 men. To co-operate with this force, a squadron of three French ships, under M. de Tilly, sailed from Newport, the blockade of the British fleet having been terminated by a violent storm. But neither by sea nor land was any thing of the least importance achieved. The Americans were animated by the hopes of taking Arnold; in which case, Washington had given La Fayette written instructions to deal with him "in the most summary way," that is, to shoot or hang him on the spot.†

Arnold, however, did not long retain the chief command. A negotiation as to the prisoners was at this time in progress. The American rulers, after manifold evasions and delays, had made up their minds to leave wholly unfulfilled the engagement plighted in their name with the English chiefs at Saratoga. With perfect coolness they proceeded to deal with these men as with ordinary prisoners of war. On this footing, General Phillips, who among the captives held the next rank to Burgoyne, was exchanged for General Lincoln, the late Governor of Charleston. Other exchanges of the same kind set free from their long captivity the remaining officers of the Convention troops. But the Americans would, on no account, let go the common men. Phillips, upon his release, was despatched by Sir Henry Clinton

* Life of Washington, by Sparks, p. 346. Memoirs of Reed, vol. ii. pp. 312—332.

† Instructions, Feb. 20. 1781. (Washington's Writings, vol. vii. p. 419.)

with reinforcements to the post at Portsmouth; and, as the senior in rank, reduced Arnold to a second place. In the month of April, soon after his arrival, he undertook with Arnold an extensive foray through Virginia. With little opposition they advanced to Williamsburg and Petersburg; there, and at other places destroying a large amount of public stores. There, at the close of this expedition, General Phillips, a brave veteran from Prince Ferdinand's wars, fell ill of a fever and died. Thus, for a while, the command once more devolved upon Arnold.

In the south, Lord Cornwallis^a had been carrying on a most active winter campaign. Sir Henry Clinton had sent him, with full powers, the utmost reinforcement he could spare, and the troops at first intended for the Chesapeake, between two and three thousand^a men under General Leslie. But Cornwallis had no longer an inefficient foe before him. The Congress had recalled General Gates at the close of the last campaign, and in his stead, on Washington's recommendation, had appointed General Greene. Nathaniel Greene was a native of Warwick, in Rhode Island, born in 1742. His father was a Quaker preacher, and also the master of a forge. To the second of these callings was young Nathaniel bred. Even as a working smith, he showed an early aptitude for mathematical pursuits. He would employ his leisure hours in making small anchors, and other such toys as he could readily dispose of, that he might, from the fruits of his labour, purchase a few books. One of the happiest days of his life, he declares, was that which first saw him possessed in this manner of an Euclid. In 1770, he was elected to the General Assembly of his native colony. In 1774, he married.* But neither his Quaker training, nor yet his wedded ties, withheld him from engaging, as his sense of public duty directed, in his country's service. In the very year of his marriage, he enrolled himself as a private^a in one of the

* The grandson and biographer of Greene, in relating this marriage, dilates upon "that beautiful intercourse with the other sex "which forms so great a charm of American life." (p. 24, ed. 1846.) But why restrict the charm to America?

independent companies. Next year, when hostilities broke forth with the mother country, so great was the dearth of officers, especially in so small a state as Rhode Island, that Greene was at once appointed to the command of its little army, with the rank of Major General. Serving at head-quarters, or near the Commander-in-Chief, he took part with credit in many of the principal transactions of the war. But he had no separate command till sent to succeed Gates in the Carolinas. There his conduct was such as well to justify Washington's recommendation. Bold and active, fertile in expedients, ever forward to meet obstacles, and not easily discouraged by reverses, he was also most warmly attached to the cause he had from the first espoused. Thought, as chief, he was not once victorious in the field, it is remarkable how high his name stands in the annals of the war, and justly—in the reverent remembrance of his countrymen.

On his arrival in the south, he had found in the place of Gates's army, a small, weak and dispirited remnant. Without delay, he busily applied himself, both to recruit its numbers and to raise its discipline. His resources were most inoperative. "We are living 'upon charity,'" he writes, "and subsist upon daily contributions."* In another of his letters of this period, while complaining of his destitution, there peeps out a painful revelation of the true state of the colonies. Some of his Militia men, he says, are "as ragged and naked as the 'Virginia blacks.'"†

Greene, however, was greatly cheered by the first event of the campaign. Lord Cornwallis had detached Colonel Tarleton, with 1,000 men, horse and foot, to pursue and rout the American division of light troops, under General Morgan. On the 7th of January, Tarleton came up with the enemy, at a place called the Cowpens. He found them about equal in infantry, but inferior in horse; on the other hand, his own troops were exhausted with fatigue, from a long night-march. Nevertheless, the

To President Reed; January 9, 1781. (Reed's Memoirs, vol. ii. p. 346.)

† To General Washington, January 13, 1781. (Correspondence of the Revolution, as edited by Mr. Sparks, vol. iii. p. 208. ed. 1853.)

impetuous Tarleton, too confident of victory, led them forward to the charge. He succeeded in throwing into confusion the first and second line of the Americans; but they quickly rallied, and became the assailants in their turn. The way-worn English were altogether overpowered. Tarleton and the cavalry made their escape from the field; but the infantry were all either slain or taken prisoners: the number of these last being full 500.

The action at the Cowpens gave lustre to the American arms. It surprised, and mortified, but did not dispirit, Lord Cornwallis. On the contrary, he set his troops in rapid movement, cheerfully, for the sake of speed, sacrificing the greater part of his own and his officers' baggage. His object was to intercept Morgan and the prisoners at the fords of the Catawba. A sudden rise in the water, from the rains, delayed his progress; first, at that stream, and next, also, at the Yadkin. But though Lord Cornwallis could not hinder Morgan from rejoining the main body under Greene, he advanced, with good success, against both these chiefs combined. It was only through Greene's great activity and judgment, that they saved themselves from being compelled to fight under many disadvantageous circumstances. Closely pursued, they crossed the river Dan into Virginia, and left the whole of North Carolina at the mercy of the English.

Desisting from further pursuit, Lord Cornwallis repaired to Hillsborough. There he raised the Royal Standard, and issued a proclamation inviting all loyal subjects to join him. He had good grounds to expect the accession of considerable numbers. Greene himself, in his most confidential correspondence, a few weeks afterwards, speaking of the southern States, owns that "the majority is greatly in favour of the enemy's interest now."* So important, indeed, at the time, did Cornwallis's gathering of the loyalists appear to Greene, that he determined, at all hazards, to impede it. He crossed the Dan once more, with the aid of some new Virginian Militia, and hung upon Cornwallis's flank and rear. It so chanced, that immediately afterwards, a body of some

* To President Reed, May 4. 1781.

200 loyalists, on their way to join the British, fell in with Greene's vanguard, under Colonel Lee, which they mistook for their own friends. Colonel Lee, on the contrary, detected them at once from the badge which they bore—a red rag upon their hats. Thus they were taken wholly unawares, in a long, narrow lane, near the river Haw; and they were beginning to protest that they were “the very best friends of the King,” when suddenly, their countrymen, deaf to all cries for mercy, fell upon them, and cut them down, without resistance, in cold blood. Cruelty is not always—would that it were!—intellectual for its objects; and this dire act of slaughter certainly tended, in a great degree, to keep back the other Carolina loyalists, and scare them from the new-raised Royal Standard.

Greene, though at first unequal to Cornwallis, received, by degrees, both reinforcements and supplies. Choosing some strong ground near Guilford court-house, he no longer declined the battle which the English General offered. It was fought on the 15th of March, and was well contested. At length, the Americans, consisting, in part, of raw Militia, were utterly defeated, and driven from the field, leaving behind their artillery, and upwards of 300 dead. In the words of one of their historians: “No battle, in the course of the war, reflects more honour on the courage of the British troops than this of Guilford. On no other occasion had they fought with such inferiority of numbers, or disadvantages of ground.”* This inferiority of numbers was, indeed, considerable. Lord Cornwallis, in his despatch to Sir Henry Clinton, reports his troops in the action as 1,600; and declares his opinion that the enemy in sight of him were 7,000. The best American authorities observe that, not counting their first line, which fled without a struggle, the force that really fought on their side was 3,200.

However signal was this victory, it brought no fruits to Lord Cornwallis. He had expected some reinforcements from among the country people; but, as is stated by himself: “Many of the inhabitants rode into camp;

* Marshall's *Life of Washington*, vol. iv. p. 345.

"shook me by the hand; said they were glad to see us, and to hear that we had beat Greene, and then rode back again."* One-third of his own small force had been disabled in the fight; the remainder were exhausted with fatigue, and straitened for supplies. Thus, unable to improve his advantages, he fell back, by easy marches, towards the coast, fixing his head-quarters at Wilmington, a small seaport on the Cape Fear river. Greene followed in his track for some marches, appearing, to his own surprise, in the light of a pursuer so soon after his great defeat. Ere long, however, Greene stopped short, and took a different direction. He had judiciously resolved, instead of following Lord Cornwallis any further, to renew the war in South Carolina, and attack Lord Rawdon, who commanded the British posts in that province.

At Wilmington, Lord Cornwallis halted for about three weeks. He found himself in great perplexity as to his future plans. Even after calling in some outposts, his whole force was but 1,500 men. With these, should he march back, to South Carolina, and relieve Lord Rawdon; or advance into Virginia, and join Generals Phillips and Arnold? Compelled to decide without consulting Clinton, he resolved upon the latter course; and, on the 25th of April, commenced his march to the northward. He made his way through Virginia, with little or no opposition from the people; impeded only by the number of rivers to be crossed, and by the difficult nature of the country. On the 20th of May he arrived at Petersburg. There he had to mourn the recent death of his friend General Phillips, but found General Arnold strengthened by another detachment from New York. The whole united force amounted to nearly 7,000 men.

With this augmented army, General Arnold did not remain. He had lately stated it as his opinion, in his letters to Lord George Germaine, that his former post at West Point might yet be reduced by a few days' regular attack. Lord George had referred the project back to Sir Henry Clinton, as one highly deserving of

* To Sir H. Clinton, April 10, 1781. (Corresp. published in 1783, p. 10.)

adoption. By his own, as well as by Sir Henry's wish, Arnold now sailed for New York, to consult upon this project, which, however, came to nothing. Indeed, the whole effective force of Clifton, at this time, as we learn from his despatches, was exactly 10,931.* Far from undertaking a campaign in the Highlands, on doubtful representations, he desired to recall the last detachments from Virginia, if Cornwallis could spare them. He had cause to apprehend an attack of the French and Americans combined, upon New York; an attack which Washington several times seriously planned, and brought to the brink of execution, but which difficulties on his side had always hitherto prevented.

In Virginia, where Jefferson was Governor, and where La Fayette commanded, the Americans were, as yet, much inferior to Cornwallis. "I am not strong enough even to get beaten!" writes La Fayette to Washington.† The English Earl sent out from his headquarters, two light expeditions, the one under Colonel Tarleton, the other under Colonel Simcoe. They had great success; both Jefferson and La Fayette most narrowly escaping. Cornwallis, who himself undertook some rapid marches in advance, had strong hopes of seizing his young French adversary. "The boy cannot escape me!" — these words, it is said, he used in some letters written home, which, after the event, were well remembered.‡ To slip away from a superior force, by dint of good intelligence and celerity of movements, is no high military exploit; it is the highest, however, that, as the leader of an army, History has to record of the Marquis de La Fayette.

In the south, General Greene had never been able to collect again the greater part of the Militia scattered far and wide at the battle of Guilford. With nearly 2,000 men, however, he advanced against Lord Rawdon, who held the post of Camden with 900. On coming up, the American chief judged it best to wait for reinforce-

* To Earl Cornwallis, June 11. 1781. (Corresp. published 1783, p. 115.)

† Letter, May 24. 1781. (Corresp. of the Revolution, vol. iii. p. 322. ed. 1854.)

‡ Gordon's Hist. Amer. Rev. vol. iv. p. 111.

ments; and, meanwhile, took post some two miles from Camden upon Hobkirk's Hill. On the other hand, Lord Rawdon determined to sally forth and attack him, before his reinforcements could arrive. The action was fought on the 25th of April; the very day on which Lord Cornwallis began his march from Wilmington. After a sharp conflict, Lord Rawdon found himself master of the field, having driven the Americans with heavy loss from the heights which they had held. Thus, only a few days afterwards, does their General describe his situation and his views: "We fight, get beat, and fight again. We have so much to do, and so little to do it with, that I am much afraid these States must fall, never to rise again; and what is more, I am persuaded they will lay a train to sap the foundation of all the rest."*

But, as usual in this singular campaign, the British, though victorious, did not reap the fruits of victory. Greene took another post, only a few miles distant from them, and applied himself, with great success, to cut off their supplies, and harass their communications. Before the middle of May, Lord Rawdon, unable to bring Greene to a second action, found it necessary (first, however, destroying his least portable stores), to relinquish Camden, and fall back for the protection of Charleston.

The exertions of Greene at this juncture were well seconded by one of his own detachments under Colonel Lee, and by the partisan warfare of Marion and Sumpter, who, upon this change of fortune, had again emerged. Fort Watson, Fort Motte, Fort Granby, and several others on the frontier, fell into their hands. Greene himself was, indeed, repulsed by Colonel Cruger, in the attack upon the larger post of Ninety Six, even before the arrival of Lord Rawdon, who had received some Irish reinforcements, and was on his march to raise the siege. Yet, here again, after this success, Lord Rawdon had no better choice than to draw off the garrison, and to give up the post, which, at such a distance, he was no longer able to maintain.

The midsummer heats, so scorching and so sickly in

* Private Letter from Greene to Washington, May 1, 1781.

that climate, led, at this time, to a few weeks' suspension of the war. During the interval, Lord Rawdon, whose health had been greatly impaired by his exertions, availed himself of a permission, previously obtained, to embark for Europe. Just before he sailed, Charleston became the scene of a military execution, deemed requisite as a political example. Colonel Isaac Hayne, an American who had acceded to the English, and taken their oath of allegiance, was afterwards captured when in arms against them; and, being brought before a Court of Inquiry, was sentenced to be hanged, and was hanged accordingly. This act drew from General Greene the most vehement denunciations, — as though it had been a wanton murder, or, in his own words, an “inhuman insult,” — as though it might have justified the severest vengeance upon the unoffending British prisoners in his hands. Some months later, the Duke of Richmond also made the case of Hayne the subject of an accusatory motion in the House of Lords. On both sides of the Atlantic was the character of Lord Rawdon unsparingly assailed. Greene, indeed, thought fit to charge him with being pusillanimous, as well as craft; “perpetrating this atrocity at a time when his immediate embarkation for England was to preserve him from the danger of its consequences!” Nevertheless, it is clear, from Lord Rawdon's subsequent explanations, that Lieutenant-Colonel Balfour, being his senior on the Army List, and, in point of fact, holding the command at Charleston, was alone responsible. Lord Rawdon had, indeed, taken no part in the affair, except on the impulse of compassion. “Immediately on my arrival in Charleston,” he says, “application was made to me by a number of ladies, principally of your party, to save Hayne from the impending infliction. Ignorant of the complicated nature and extent of the crime, I incautiously promised to use my endeavours towards inducing Colonel Balfour to lenity.” Lord Rawdon did so, as his promise bound him; yet, he adds, that on a fuller knowledge of the case, “for the guilt of Hayne not a shadow of palliation could be found. By all the recognised laws of war, nothing was requisite in the case of

"Hayne, but to identify his person, previous to hanging him on the next tree."*

It is true that in the details of this transaction, as it took place at Charleston, there appear some circumstances of irregularity, and some of harshness, both of which may be condemned. But as to the substantial merits of the sentence, they depend solely on the question whether or not it be rightful to deal "in the most summary way" with any man, sworn to one party in a war, and yet found serving on the other. If in this question the American writers desire to maintain the affirmative, according to the established military rules, then they must acquit the British officers for having executed Hayne. If the negative, then they must condemn General Washington for the written instructions which in the very same year, and in the very same contingency—that is, with the hopes of seizing Arnold—he had given to La Fayette.

On the departure of Lord Rawdon, the chief command of the troops in the field devolved upon Colonel Stewart. Greene had encamped upon Santee Hills, but, as the summer heats abated, he descended from the heights and marched against the British. The two armies met about sixty miles from Charleston, at the Eutaw Springs. There, on the 8th of September, was fought an action, the last and one of the sharpest in this American War. The number of slain on both sides amounted to some hundreds, and the artillery was several times taken and retaken. At the outset the English were repulsed on their whole line, but recovered themselves, and in their turn drove back the Americans, remaining that night and next day in full possession of the ground. Hence, according to the rules of war, they might be regarded as the victors, although the Americans also claimed to be so; and it was, perhaps, more truly a pitched battle.

* See the excellent letter which Lord Rawdon, then Earl of Moira, addressed many years afterwards to the American General H. Lee; it is dated June 29, 1813, and printed in the Appendix (pp. xxxii. — xliii.) to Lee's "Campaign of 1781 in the Carolinas." For the statements in Greene's public and private correspondence, consult p. 440. of that volume, and the biography by Greene's grandson, p. 311.

As to its result, the English reaped the customary fruits of their victories during this campaign. Ere long they found it necessary to fall back to Charleston Neck; while the greater part, not merely of the open country, not merely in South Carolina, but in Georgia, was over-run by Greene, and restored to its American allegiance. Before the close of the year the King's troops held little or nothing in either of these provinces, beyond the districts immediately adjoining their two strongholds of Charleston and Savannah.

Spain also had sent a small expedition into West Florida, and completed her re-conquest of that province by the capture of Pensacola, in May.

Meanwhile, in Virginia, Lord Cornwallis, like Lord Rawdon, had been compelled by the summer heats to slacken in his military enterprises. The force in his front was gradually augmenting. General Wayne, with the Pennsylvanians, had succeeded in joining La Fayette; and other bodies of Militia had come in. It seemed, besides, by no means beyond the bounds of probability that, early in the autumn, Washington and Rochambeau might combine and move upon the Chesapeake. Under such circumstances Sir Henry Clinton felt the importance of effecting a diversion, and turning some of the enemy's troops to another quarter. Towards the middle of August he had received a reinforcement of great value to him, a body of 2,400 German recruits; and at the beginning of September he despatched General Arnold with an expedition to Connecticut. This expedition, after carrying Forts Trumbull and Griswold, reduced to ashes the flourishing town of New London, with many of the vessels in the harbour, Arnold, apparently, being but little moved by the remembrance that the district thus wasted was his birthplace.* Sir Henry had in view another enterprise against Rhode Island; and a blow still far bolder upon Philadelphia, where, as in a place of full security, the Americans had collected all their prin-

* Arnold states, however, in his official report: "The explosion of the powder and change of wind soon after the stores were fired communicated the flames to part of the town, which was, notwithstanding every effort to prevent it, unfortunately destroyed." (MS. despatch, Sept. 8, 1781, appended to Sir Henry Clinton's Memoirs.)

cial stores and magazines. Both these projects, however, though brought to the very verge of execution, were nipped in the bud by wholly insuperable difficulties.

Sir Henry all this while, by means of an intercepted mail, had accurate intelligence of the enemy's most secret designs. Thus it was that he had learnt their first scheme of an attack upon New York. Thus, also, had he become apprised that in their own opinion "a visible languor to their cause began universally to prevail." But as he declares it, "the most interesting piece of intelligence which this capture procured us was an intimation from the Court of France that this was the last campaign in which the Americans were to expect assistance of either troop or ships from that nation, as she began to be apprehensive that her own exigencies would put it out of her power to continue her support, if the war should be protracted much longer,—thereby strongly pointing out to us the policy of avoiding all risks as much as possible, because it was now manifest that if we could only persevere in escaping affront, Time alone would soon bring about every success we could wish."*

Hence it will be seen that even at that late period the British cause in North America was, to say the very least of it, not lost. But the current of affairs and the nature of the country were now rapidly leading to a great disaster, such as afterwards no successes could outweigh, and no skill retrieve. Among the lesser causes of that disaster must be reckoned the personal estrangement of Clinton and Cornwallis. Differences between them had for some time past been smouldering; and on their return to England at the peace, they eagerly assailed each other in a paper war. Yet, without following the complaints of both into minute detail, it may be asserted that they give no just ground for the serious arraignment of either. Of the two, Clinton was probably the abler, Cornwallis the more enterprising chief; but both alike were men of the highest honour and courage, full of zeal for their country's service, and when it came to action, ever desirous to postpone—if not, in fact, postponing—their personal differences to the public

* Sir Henry Clinton's Memoirs, vol. ii. MS.

cause. Both—Cornwallis more especially—may have erred in judgment; yet it seems only equitable to remember how thorny and bewildering were at this time the paths before them.

Another, and the most efficient, cause of the disaster that ensued, lay in the superiority of naval force which the French suddenly acquired in these seas. In the month of May, a new chief, the Comte de Barras, had arrived from Europe, and taken the command of the French squadron, still lying at Rhode Island, and hitherto in some degree neglected.* Towards the same period, Sir Henry Clinton, at his own earnest and repeated request, had been freed from the counter-action of a most untoward colleague; Admiral Arbuthnot being recalled, and Admiral Graves appointed in his place. Thus far the chiefs only were changed, and the balance of force was, as before, in favour of the English. But the balance was wholly turned against them when, in the latter part of August, the Comte de Grasse arrived from the West Indies with eight and twenty sail of the line. De Grasse was followed by Sir Samuel Hood, but Sir Samuel could bring only fourteen.

On his voyage De Grasse fell in with and took the packet from Charleston, having on board Lord Rawdon, who thus found himself within a few weeks from a victor at Hobkirk's Hill a prisoner in the Chesapeake. Entering that bay, the French Admiral set on shore between three and four thousand land troops, under the Marquis de St. Simon; a most welcome addition to the force of La Fayette. So ill-informed, meanwhile, was Hood of the true number of De Grasse's vessels, that, writing to Sir Henry Clinton from off Cape Henry, on the 25th of August, he declared his own fleet fully equal to defeat any designs of the enemy, let De Grasse bring or send what ships he might in aid to those under Barras. On these assurances Sir Henry Clinton relied, and certainly, was justified in relying, and he afterwards appealed to

* "Il y avait dix mois que nous étions partis de France; nous n'avions pas encore reçu une lettre ni un écu," says the Duke de Lauzun. (*Mémoires*, p. 353, ed. 1822.)

them as indicating the hopes that he had cherished and the plans that he had formed.

Admiral Graves, on his part, hastened to join Hood with five ships, all those he had ready for sea; and, as the senior officer, he assumed the chief command. When he appeared off the Capes of Virginia, De Grasse went out to meet him with the greater part of his force, and there ensued between them, on the 5th of September, a desultory and indecisive action. Several ships were damaged, but none were taken, and at last, after some days, they parted; the English fleet returning to New York, and the French fleet to the Chesapeake. There De Grasse was joined by the squadron of Barras, from Newport; but, on the other hand, some ships from England, under Admiral Digby, increased the force of Graves. The relative superiority, however, still continued, as before, greatly on the side of the French. While they, in the Chesapeake, could boast thirty-six sail of the line, we, at New York, had no more than twenty-five.

Washington, meanwhile, had not been diverted from his designs against Lord Cornwallis, either by the descent of Arnold in Connecticut, or by any apprehension for Rhode Island. He was wisely impressed with the importance, at that juncture, of striking a great blow. Every where around him, he found a vague dependence on French aid unnerve and take the place of a self-relying zeal. He saw the Congress, so energetic and so well supported at its outset, utterly failing in ability, and sunk in reputation. He saw the people in the very throes of national bankruptcy; "our poor old currency 'is breathing its last gasp,'" writes, at this time, an accomplished lady from Boston.* He saw the Eastern States especially, as their own writers have acknowledged, grown almost indifferent to the war since it had passed to other shores. Thus, to use Washington's words at a later period, "some splendid advantage was 'essentially necessary at the crisis in question, to revive

* Letter to Mr. John Adams, from "Paris," May 25. 1781. (Mrs. Adams's Correspondence, p. 125. ed. 1841.)

"the expiring hopes and languid exertions of the country."^{*}

With these views, the American General, and in combination with ~~him~~ Comte de Rochambeau, after several feints, drew off their main forces to Philadelphia, and from thence marched to the Head of Elk. On this onward route into Virginia, Washington was enabled to pay a passing visit to his beloved home of Mount Vernon, which he had never seen (so unremitting had been his public services) since he left it to attend the second Continental Congress, six years and a half before. On the 14th of September he reached the head-quarters of La Fayette, near Williamsburg, and assumed, of course, the chief command, while under him De Rochambeau had the more particular direction of the French. Next, the two commanders travelled towards Cape Henry, to hold a conference with Comte de Grasse on board his ship. That ship, the *VILLE DE PARIS* was already much renowned; it carried 106 guns and was, perhaps, the largest vessel then afloat larger, certainly, than any of our own "first-rates." It had been built at lavish cost and with scientific care by direction of the citizens of Paris, as a present to King Louis, who, in accepting their gift, had bestowed on it their name.[†]

At the conference on board the *Ville de Paris*, the Comte de Grasse gave his colleagues notice, that owing to his other duties, and his precise orders from home, he could not continue on this station longer than the 1st of November. Meanwhile, it was determined to press the operations against Lord Cornwallis with the utmost vigour. The net, indeed, was rapidly closing around the English Earl. During the month of August he had relinquished Portsmouth, and taken post at Yorktown, in pursuance of some instructions from Sir Henry Clinton, which Sir Henry meant as permissive, but which Cornwallis understood as peremptory. Yorktown, as Cornwallis afterwards declared, was not, in his judgment, well adapted for defence. It is a small village,

^{*} See Mr. Mundy's *Life of Washington*, p. 360.

[†] On the "*Ville de Paris*," see Mundy's *Life of Rodney*, vol. ii. p. 243.

about twelve miles from Williamsburg, built upon a high bank, the southern one, of York river. There, the long peninsula, extending between the rivers York and James, is little more than eight miles broad. There, the river York itself is one mile in width; and, on a point of land projecting from the northern bank, lies Gloucester, another small village, which Cornwallis also held. Both posts, but more especially York-town as the larger, he had fortified as he best might, with redoubts and intrenchments; and these unfinished works he was now to maintain with 7,000 men, against a force which by degrees grew to 18,000. His position was not really perilous, so long as the English retained the superiority at sea; but the great fleet of De Grasse was now interposing, and cut off his retreat.

With proper frankness Cornwallis had not left his commanding officer in any doubt as to his difficulties. So early as the 16th of September he wrote thus to Sir Henry Clinton from York-town: — "This place is in no state of defence. If you cannot relieve me very soon, you must expect to hear the worst."

It was on the 28th of the same month that the combined army of Americans and French first appeared in sight of York-town. Cornwallis is alleged to have neglected a favourable opportunity to fall upon and overpower the separate division of La Fayette before it was supported by the rest. Yet such success, had it even been achieved, and had not the Americans come up quicker than was thought, could have had no material bearing on the result of the campaign. On the evening of the 29th the English General was cheered by the arrival of an express, bringing despatches from Sir Henry Clinton of the 24th of September. "At a meeting," wrote Sir Henry, "of the General and Flag Officers, held this day, it is determined that above 5,000 men, rank and file, shall be embarked on board the King's ships, and the joint exertions of the navy and army made in a few days to relieve you, and afterwards co-operate with you. The fleet consists of twenty-three ships of the line, three of which are three-deckers. There is every reason to hope we start from hence the 5th of October."

On the same night after receiving these despatches, Cornwallis, in expectation of speedy succour, drew in his troops from the outward defences, and confined them to the entrenchments of the town. It was a step for the Americans which they had not expected to secure so soon. "By this means," writes Washington, "we are in possession of very advantageous grounds, which command the British line of works in a very near advance." On the 1st of October he was enabled to report to the President of Congress his investment as fully completed. Gloucester, which was held by Colonel Dundas, was beleaguered by some Virginian Militia, and by the French legion of the Duke de Lauzun. York-town, where Cornwallis, in person, and with his main force commanded, saw, to its left, the division of La Fayette; and to its right, the division of St. Simon. Other bodies of troops filled the space between them, while Washington and Rochambeau fixed their posts near together, towards the centre. They brought up fifty pieces of cannon, for the most part heavy, by aid from the French ships, as also sixteen mortars; and they lost no time in commencing their first parallel against the town.

On the other part, Lord Cornwallis, is admitted to have shown most undaunted resolution. The officers under him, and the troops, German and English, all did their duty well. For some weeks they had laboured hard and unremittingly, in raising their defences; and they were now prepared, with equal spirit, to maintain their half-completed works. But, besides the enemy without, they had another foe within—an epidemic sickness, that stretched many hundreds helpless on their pallet-beds. Nor could they hinder Washington from completing his first parallel, and opening his fire upon them on the evening of the 5th of October. For two days the fire was incessant from heavy cannon, and from mortars and howitzers, throwing shells in showers on the town, until, says Cornwallis, all our guns on the left were silenced, our works much damaged, and our loss of men considerable. At the same time, also, the Charon, a ship of forty-

four guns, together with three British transports in the river, were set in flames, and consumed. On the night of the 11th the enemy began their second parallel at about three hundred yards; that is, at only half the distance, of the former. Cornwallis did all in his power to delay, for prevent he could not, the progress of this work, by opening new embrasures for guns, and keeping up a constant fire with all the howitzers and small mortars that he could man.

In their approaches the enemy were also, in some degree, impeded by two redoubts which the British had constructed in advance to cover their left flank. These Washington resolved to storm; and, for the sake of exciting emulation, he entrusted the attack of the one to the Americans, and of the other to the French. Both attacks were made in the night of the 14th, and with full success; and, by the unwearied exertions of the enemy, both redoubts were included in their second parallel by day-break the next morning.

Up to this time Lord Cornwallis had been cheered by the expectation of speedy aid. Often and anxiously must he have looked out for a white sail gleaming in the distance on the blue waters of the bay. But, on the 15th, the morning after the redoubts were stormed, it was clear to him that the expedition from New York had been either, by some accident, delayed, or, by the superiority of the French fleet, turned aside. Writing, on that day, a few lines in cypher to Sir Henry, Cornwallis described his prospects as follows:—"My situation now becomes very critical. We dare not show a gun to their (the enemy's) old batteries, and I expect that their new ones will open to-morrow morning. Experience has shown that our fresh earthen works do not resist their powerful artillery; so that we shall soon be exposed to an assault in ruined works, in a bad position, and with weakened numbers. The safety of the place is, therefore, so precarious, that I cannot recommend that the fleet and army should run great risk in endeavouring to save us."

Lord Cornwallis, however, with a true soldier's spirit, while discouraging "great risk" to others, was ready to run any risk, however great, of his own. A little before

day-break of the 16th he ordered a sally of about 350 men, under the direction of Lieutenant-Colonel Abercrombie, to attack two of the enemy's batteries, which appeared to be in the greatest forwardness, and to spike their guns. The gallant little band, well led under Abercrombie by Armstrong, and by Lake, carried all before them, forcing the redoubt, spiking eleven of the guns, and killing or wounding about one hundred of the French. But this action, though extremely honourable to the officers and soldiers who performed it, proved of little public good; for the cannon having, of necessity, been spiked in haste, were soon rendered fit for service once more. "And before dark," says Cornwallis, "the enemy's whole parallel and batteries appeared to be nearly complete. At this time we knew that there was no part of the whole front attacked on which we could show a single gun, and our shells were nearly expended. I had, therefore, only to choose between preparing to surrender next day, or endeavouring to get off with the greatest part of the troops; and I determined to attempt the

For that enterprise Lord Cornwallis had provided sixteen large boats, which, upon other pretexts, were ordered to be in readiness to receive troops that same evening at ten o'clock. With these it was hoped to pass the infantry during the night to Gloucester, relinquishing the baggage, and leaving a small detachment to capitulate for the town's people, and for the sick and wounded. The plan of Cornwallis was next to force the enemy's lines in front of Gloucester, and cut to pieces or disperse their troops; then to mount his men on horses taken from the French or the country people; to gain, by a rapid march, the fords of the great rivers, and make his way through Maryland and the Jerseys to New York. Considering the vast extent of country to be passed, and the superiority of the force in his rear, the enterprise appears not merely daring, but desperate; still, slight as were his chances, Cornwallis far preferred them to surrender. The first embarkation of troops had already gone to the northern bank, when the whole project was marred and arrested by the weather, which, from calm and fair, suddenly changed to a most violent storm of

wind and rain. The crossing of the other troops that night became impossible; all that could be done was to bring back next forenoon the detachments that had already passed.

Meanwhile, as Cornwallis had expected, the enemy's batteries before York-town had opened at day-break. Nothing now remained for him but to obtain the best terms he could. On that morning, then, the 17th of October, he sent a flag of truce to Washington, proposing a cessation of arms, and a treaty for the capitulation of his post. Washington, in reply, required him to state within two hours the terms which he demanded. In a second letter hereupon Cornwallis asked that the garrisons of York and Gloucester, though laying down their arms as prisoners of war, should be sent home,—the Britons to Britain, and the Germans to Germany, under engagement not to serve against France, America, or their allies, until in due form exchanged. The American General declared these terms to be inadmissible, and the Earl then agreed to waive them. It appears probable, indeed, that they were proposed only for the sake of form or show. Their fulfilment would have depended on the Congress, and not on the personal high honour and probability of Washington. And with the event of Saratoga full in his mind, it must have seemed to Lord Cornwallis a question of utter and complete indifference whether the Americans did or did not stipulate to set their captives free.

On this basis then—as yielded by Cornwallis, on the morning of the 18th of October—a cessation of arms was continued, and a negotiation begun. The Commissioners, two field-officers being named on each side, conferred together, and discussed the terms that same day. All the artillery and public stores in the two forts, together with the shipping and boats in the two harbours, were to be surrendered by the English. On the other hand, private property of every kind was to be respected by the Americans and French. The garrisons of York and Gloucester were to march out with the same honours of war as had been granted by Sir Henry Clinton at Charleston; the land forces to remain prisoners of the United States, and the naval forces prisoners of France.

The soldiers were to be kept in Virginia, Maryland, or Pennsylvania, and as much by regiments as possible. The General, Staff, and other officers not left with the troops, to be permitted to go to New York or to Europe on parole.

"It is remarkable," says an American historian, "that while Colonel Laurens, the officer employed by General Washington (in conjunction with the Vicomte de Noailles), was drawing up these articles, his father was closely confined in the Tower of London, of which Lord Cornwallis was Constable. By this singular combination of circumstances, his Lordship became a prisoner to the son of his own prisoner!"*

An addition which Washington made as follows, to the article on private effects, appears, at first sight, obscure: "It is understood that any property, obviously belonging to the inhabitants of these States, in the possession of the garrison, shall be subject to be reclaimed." But here the obscurity has been cleared away by another historian of America. The American chiefs, he says, felt the inconsistency, while struggling for their own independence, of stipulating for the subjection of any of their fellow-men; and they therefore adopted this covert phrase, for the purpose of restoring to their rightful owners the Virginian slave.†

Cornwallis, on his part, was honourably anxious to protect from harm the native loyalists within his lines; and he proposed as the tenth article, that no such men were "to be punished on account of having joined the British army." Washington wrote, in reply: "This article cannot be assented to, being altogether of civil resort." Means were found, however, with Washington's connivance, to obtain the same object in another form. It was stipulated, that, immediately after the capitulation, the Bonetta sloop of war was to sail for New York, unsearched, with despatches from Lord Cornwallis to Sir Henry Clinton, and with as many soldiers on board as he should think fit to send; provided only that the vessel were returned, and that

* Ramsay's History of the American Revolution, vol. ii. p. 271.

† Gordon, vol. ix. p. 198.

the soldiers were accounted for as prisoners in a future exchange. By this expedient was the British chief enabled to secure a safe conduct to his American adherents. It did not prevent, however, the other loyalists at New York and elsewhere, from complaining loudly that any capitulation had been signed after the tenth article had been refused. Still much more did they resent the use of the word "punished" in that article, as Cornwallis first proposed it; for "punishment," they said, must imply some previous crime; and their only crime had been allegiance to their King.

The articles of the capitulation, having been finally fixed by Washington and accepted by Cornwallis, were signed by the respective Generals on the morning of the 19th of October. On the British side, about 500 men had been killed or wounded during the progress of the siege. At its close, the British and German troops, exclusive of the seamen, amounted to 6,000; but so great was the number of the sick and the disabled, that there remained less than 4,000 fit for duty. At two o'clock that afternoon, as agreed in the capitulation, the York-town troops marched out with their drums beating, their arms shouldered, and their colours cased, to lay down their arms before the enemy, Americans and French, drawn out in line. The officer specially appointed to receive them was General Lincoln, the chief of their captives at Charleston in the preceding year. Yet Washington, with his usual lofty spirit, had no desire to aggravate the anguish and humiliation of honourable foes. On the contrary, he bade all mere spectators keep aloof from the ceremony, and suppressed all public signs of exultation.

The scene which ensued is described by an eyewitness, a French chaplain of the Comte de Rochambeau. The two lines of the Allied army, says Abbé Robin, were drawn out for upwards of a mile; the Americans having the right. The disproportion of heights and of ages in their men, and their soiled and ragged clothing, might be unfavourably contrasted with the better and more soldierly appearance of the French. Yet, under such circumstances, the personal disadvantages of a raw Militia should rather be looked upon as an enhancement

of the triumph they had gained. The Abbé was struck at seeing, from several indications, how much keener was at that time the animosity between the English and Americans than between the English and French. Thus, the English officers, when they laid down their arms, and were passing along the enemy's lines, courteously saluted every French officer, even of the lowest rank; a compliment which they withheld from every American, even of the highest.

The followers of the English army, left defenceless at York-town, were exposed to much ill-treatment on the part of the native soldiers, thirsting, it was said, for vengeance. Abbé Robin saw an English lady, a Colonel's wife, come in tears to implore, for herself and for her children, the protection of French generosity against American outrage.* On the other hand, we find the English officers and soldiers -- the actual prisoners of war -- bear willing testimony to the kindness they received. Thus speaks Lord Cornwallis, in his letter to Sir Henry Clinton: "The treatment in general, that we have received from the enemy, since our surrender, has been perfectly good and proper. But the kindness and attention that has been shown to us by the French officers in particular, their delicate sensibility of our situation, their generous and pressing offer of money, both public and private, to any amount, has really gone beyond what I can possibly describe, and will, I hope, make an impression on the breast of every English officer, whenever the fortune of war should put any of them into our power."

But, where was Sir Henry Clinton meanwhile? He had prepared his auxiliary force at New York, and was ready and eager to embark on the 5th of October. The ships, on the contrary, were ill provided, and the Admirals slow. "We had the misfortune," Clinton

* "Les Anglais restés à York sans armes eurent à souffrir de beaucoup d'Américains qui voulaient se venger des brigandages commis dans leurs habitations. J'ai vu la femme d'un Colonel Anglais venir à pleurs supplier nos officiers de lui donner une garde pour la semaine, elle et ses enfans, de la violence du soldat Américain." (*Voyage en Amérique, par l'Abbé Robin, p. 141. ed. 1782.*)

writes, "to see almost every succeeding day produce some naval obstruction or other to protract our departure; and I am sorry to add, that it was the afternoon of the 19th before the fleet was fairly at sea." This was the very day of Lord Cornwallis's capitulation; and, on coming off the Chesapeake, they received, in due course, the news of that event. Nothing, then, was left for them, but to go back whence they came. It is to be noted, that if the fleet could have sailed in time, the relief to Lord Cornwallis need not have been hindered by the enemy's superiority at sea. Thus continues Sir Henry in his unpublished Memoirs:—"The Flag Officers of the fleet, who were present when this matter was debated in Council, were all clearly of opinion that thirty-six ships of the line could not, in the position the French fleet had taken between the Middle Ground and Horseshoe Flats, prevent even twenty-three from passing, with a leading wind and tide, into either York or James's river. The reasons given were that the enemy's ships, being unable, from the violence of the tide, and great swell of the sea that runs in that channel, to avail themselves of the springs upon their cables, their broadsides could not be brought to bear on ships approaching them end on; and after a passage should be effected, they would not dare suddenly to weigh or cut for the purpose of following, lest they should be driven on shore."

With the surrender of Lord Cornwallis, the American War may be said to have concluded; so far at least as its active military operations were concerned. It was a war by no means, as we sometimes hear alleged of it, founded on any plain or palpable injustice in point of law, since, at the outset, when the taxes were first imposed, the English Ministers might point to nearly all the highest authorities as affirming the abstract right of taxation we possessed. But, beyond all doubt, it was a war proceeding on the grossest impolicy, from the moment it was seen how much resentment the exercise of that right provoked. For the mere barren assertion of that right—for a mere peppercorn of rent—we alienated, and, as it were, in wantonness, flung from us provinces which, at the peace of 1763, had been as contented and loyal, as the shores along the Severn

or the Thames. We grew wiser, but too late. Earnest and more earnest overtures, larger and then larger concessions, were tendered, from time to time, to the unhappy Colonies, but always a few weeks or a few months beyond the period when they might yet have healed the wound. The same utter want of policy which provoked the war was shown in its first direction. Our most skillful commanders, our most daring enterprises, seemed to be reserved for the conclusion of the conflict, when skill could no more avail us, and when enterprise led only to disaster. While the opportunity was still ours—while France and Spain, so soon to combine against us, still kept aloof—while Washington's army, for example, was in full flight, or Gates's was not yet formed, then it is that we find General Howe content to bound his conquests at the Delaware, and General Burgoyne refrain a whole month from his advance to Albany. Such was the system in the Cabinet, against which our greatest statesmen warned the Ministry in vain. Such were the errors in the field, which even the occasional skill of our officers, and the constant bravery of our troops, could not retrieve. Thus did we alienate a people with whom we might perhaps, to this very day, have kept united; with them resolutely upholding peace among all other nations; with them, the leaders of the world in temperate liberty and Christian progress. They might have been both our brother freemen and our fellow subjects, free with their own Assemblies, as we are free with ours, yet bound to us beneath the golden circle of the Crown. Or if even, with their growing numbers, that golden circle had seemed to them to press, it might have been gently and quietly unloosed. We might have parted as friends and kinsmen part, not have torn asunder with a bleeding gash on either side.

The intelligence of the York-town capitulation reached London about noon on the 25th of November. Lord George Germaine, who first received it as Secretary of State, hastened to impart it in person to the Prime Minister, and, by letter, to the King. Mr. Wraxall, as it chanced, dined with Lord George that very day, and then asked him how Lord North took the communication? "As he would have taken a cannon-ball in his breast," replied Lord George. "He opened his arms,

"exclaiming wildly, as he paced up and down the room
 "for a few minutes, 'O God! it is all over!' words which
 "he repeated many times under the deepest agitation
 "and distress." *

Far greater was the fortitude shown by George the Third. His Majesty's reply to the communication from Lord George Germaine was received that same afternoon: it was neither tremulous in its hand-writing, nor yet despondent in its tone; it expressed his deep concern, but, at the same time, his steady resolution. There was only one little circumstance which to Lord George's practised eye betrayed unwonted emotion. In that letter the King had omitted to mark the hour and minute of his writing, as he was accustomed to do with scrupulous exactness.

At Paris, the tidings of Cornwallis's surrender arrived upon the 26th. "Most heartily,"—thus writes Franklin to John Adams, in Holland,—“do I congratulate you on the glorious news. The infant Hercules in his cradle has now strangled his second serpent.” The first serpent was, of course, no other than General Burgoyne. So pleased was Franklin with this classical conceit, that it afterwards formed the subject of a medal, struck by his direction. †

It is remarkable, however, that Franklin, writing only three days before to another private friend, had used the following expression: “I wish most heartily with you that this accursed war was at an end; but I despair of seeing it finished in my time.” ‡

* “Historical Memoirs of My Own Time,” by Sir N. Wraxall, vol. ii. p. 101. ed. 1815. Wraxall is a writer of no authority on any disputed fact, but may be allowed some credit on slight circumstances falling directly within his own observation.

† Note to Washington's Writings, vol. viii. p. 189.

‡ To Governor Pownall, November 23. 1761. Franklin's Writings, vol. ix. p. 93. ed. 1844.

CHAPTER LXV.

THE opening of the Session had been fixed for the 27th of November, only two days after the ill tidings. It became requisite on their account to frame the Royal Speech anew. As delivered by His Majesty, from the Throne, it was found to state the disaster of his army in Virginia, and to call upon his people for their "vigorous, animated, and united exertion."

In the Upper House no sooner had the Address of Thanks been moved and seconded, than Lord Shelburne started up with an Amendment. He adverted to the King in terms of due respect, as "a valorous and generous prince, gathering firmness from misfortune." But on the whole conduct of the Ministry, on the entire policy of Ministers, he descanted with severity. He was well supported by the Duke of Richmond and Lord Camden; Lord Rockingham also spoke shortly on his side. In reply, the weapons of the Government were but feebly wielded by Lord Stormont and Lord Hillsborough; the Lord Chancellor resisted the Amendment, mainly as a violation of the established forms of Parliament, and, on the whole, it might be said of Lord Shelburne in this debate, as was said by an Irish Member on a similar occasion,—that he had a majority in every thing but numbers! His Amendment was rejected by 75 Peers against 31.

In the Commons, an Amendment was in like manner proposed by Fox, as soon as the Address had been duly moved and seconded. He applauded the Ministry, in a strain of sarcastic invective, because they had selected very young Members for that task,—a task which, he said, required the benefit of inexperience, the recommendation of ignorance! For himself, though a young man, he could not be called a young Member. He had seen the whole system of Ministers; he had heard their

progressive madness, impolicy, or treachery: and he was now confounded at their presuming to look the Commons' House of Parliament in the face. . . . He would not say that he believed they were paid by France; it was not possible for him to prove the fact; but he would venture to say that they deserved to be so paid.

This powerful philippic drew from Lord North a short but able reply. To the charge of personal corruption he referred with just disdain. Of Lord Cornwallis's capitulation he spoke with recovered firmness. "A melancholy disaster," he said, "has occurred in Virginia; but are we, therefore, to lie down and die? No, it ought rather to rouse us into action; it ought to impel, to urge, to animate, for by bold and united exertions every thing may be saved; by dejection and despair every thing must be lost." The honourable gentleman had threatened with impeachment and the scaffold, but that should not deter him from striving to preserve the rights and legislative authority of Parliament. The war with America had been unfortunate, but not unjust.

Burke, in answer to this speech, poured forth a strain of most impassioned eloquence; the words of Lord North, said he, froze his blood, and harrowed up his soul. "Good God! Mr. Speaker," he exclaimed, "are we yet to be told of the rights for which we went to war? Oh, excellent rights! oh, valuable rights! Valuable you should be, for we have paid dear at parting with you. Oh valuable rights, that have cost England thirteen provinces, four islands, a hundred thousand men, and more than seventy millions of money! Oh wonderful rights, that have lost to Great Britain her empire on the ocean—her boasted grand and substantial superiority, which made the world bend before her! Oh inestimable rights, that have taken from us our rank among nations, our importance abroad, and our happiness at home; that have taken from us our trade, our manufactures, and our commerce; that have reduced us from the most flourishing empire in the world to be one of the most compact, unenviable powers on the face of the globe! Oh wonderful rights that are likely to take from us all that yet remains! We had a right to tax America, says the Noble Lord, and we had a

"right, we must do it. . . . Oh miserable and infatuated men! miserable and undone country! not to know that right signified nothing without might; that the right without the power of enforcing it was nugatory and idle in the copyhold of rival states or of immense bodies! Oh, says a silly man, full of his prerogative of dominion over a few beasts of the field, there is excellent wool on the back of a wolf, and, therefore, he must be sheared. What? shear a wolf? Yes. But will he comply? have you considered the trouble? how will you get this wool? Oh, I have considered nothing, and I will consider nothing, but my right: a wolf is an animal that has wool; all animals that have wool are to be shorn, and, therefore, I will shear the wolf."

In the division which ensued the Government had a great advantage, carrying their Address by 218 votes, while there were only 129 for the Amendment. The debate, however, did not conclude with the division; it was resumed on the Report of the Address. Then Burke spoke once more; then, as Horace Walpole states, Pitt "made a most brilliant figure to the admiration of all sides." But, continues Walpole, it was the Lord Advocate, Henry Dundas, who on that occasion caused most surprise. Afflicting great frankness, he might be said almost to adopt the language of the Opposition; he seemed to accuse the Ministers of disunion, and to blame some who in council did not deliver their sincere opinion. However, with all this air of frankness, few could see what he meant, or whom he blamed; and the more he was pressed the more obscure he grew. After such a speech, to retain in office this able and eloquent, but now insubordinate, placeman, was certainly a clear sign of the weakness of the Government.

Other signs of that weakness followed in quick succession. Notwithstanding the large majority on the first day, it grew manifest that many independent country gentlemen—at their head Mr. Thomas Powys, then Member for Northamptonshire, and afterwards Lord Lilford—

* See *History of the Parl. Hist.* vol. xxii. p. 735., the extracts from Horace Walpole's MSS. given by Lord John Russell in his *Memorials of Fox*, vol. i. p. 269.

were resolved to pursue no further the contest with the Colonies. Only a few days afterwards, when the Army Estimates were moved, Sir James Lowther, seconded by Mr. Powys, interposed with a Resolution that the war carried on in North America had been ineffectual. To guard against dangerous defection in his ranks, it became necessary for Lord North to explain those altered views at which the Lord Advocate had hinted. He was willing, he said, to declare his honest opinion that it would not be wise or right to go on with the American war as we had done, that is on a continental plan, by sending armies to march through the provinces from south to north. Even this acknowledgment—as a kind of signifier notice to our enemies—he would have withheld, had it not been declared already, in the clearest manner, by the moderation of the Estimates laid upon the Table. The Estimates showed that Government could have no intention to send out a fresh army for that of Lord Cornwallis. But did not gentlemen perceive the necessity there might be for retaining certain posts in America, for the convenience even of carrying on the war against France and Spain? Must we not have ports and harbours there to give us an opportunity of acting on the seas? And would gentlemen, by adopting Sir James Lowther's Resolution, tie up the hands of Government both by sea and land?

Of the debate which ensued upon this important statement of the Ministerial policy, Horace Walpole gives the following account: "The Lord Advocate pretended to understand Lord North as declaring against a land war. Charles Fox pressed Lord North, over and over again, to say if that was his meaning, but he would not say a word more. Lord George Germaine talked of the unanimity of Ministers, but no mortal believed him. Burke made a wild passionate speech. He was now grown so heated, and uttered such rhapsodies, that he was generally very ill heard." It is remarkable, considering the extent of concession to which Lord North had gone, that Sir James Lowther's Resolution was rejected but by a majority of forty-one.

In another of these debates Sir George Savile indulged in a classical conceit, equal at least to Dr. Franklin's.

He compared Ministers to the Spartan who, in a sea engagement, swam to a galley and seized it with his right hand, which the people in the galley instantly cut off. He renewed the effort with his left hand, and that was cut off too. The sailors in the galley then asked him if he meant to persevere; the Spartan answered "Not in the same way," and laid hold of the vessel with his teeth. Thus the Government had lost two armies, or both their hands, in their strife against America, and yet they were determined to go on and fasten upon it with their teeth. But they should remember that when the Spartan did so they struck off his head!

Besides these main debates, collateral points of attack were not neglected. Burke brought forward the case of the sufferers at St. Eustatia; on which occasion, both the General and Admiral, Vaughan and Rodney, were present as members, to vindicate their share in these proceedings. Another motion referred to the imprisonment of Mr. Laurens in the Tower. There had been some time in progress a negotiation for the exchange of that gentleman with General Burgoyne, whom the Americans considered as a prisoner on parole. But, impatient of the delays that had occurred, Burke laid the whole matter before the House of Commons. He designed to have carried it further after the Recess, had not Lord North, alive at last to the necessity of conciliation, ordered the release of Mr. Laurens, on bail, before the close of the month and year.*

Beyond the walls of Parliament, also, animated by the disaster of Cornwallis, the opponents of Lord North were stirring. In a Common Hall of the City of London, there passed an Address to the King, entreating him to put an end to "this unnatural and unfortunate war." At a meeting of the West India merchants, the same desire was expressed; since their total ruin, they declared, could not else be averted. At a meeting of the electors of Westminster, Fox delivered a fiery speech,

* See several letters upon this subject in Burke's Correspondence, vol. ii. pp. 416, 417.

and carried some stringent Resolutions. Other such meetings, and with the like result, were held in Southwark, and for the counties of Middlesex and Surrey. We do not find that the example spread any farther from London; yet, no doubt, throughout the country by this time popular favour had wholly departed from the war against the Colonies. It was still, it seemed, to be carried on at a large cost, while even, by the avowal of Ministers themselves, there was to be no more vigour in its prosecution, nor hope in its result.

There was another event which added, if to add were possible, to the heat of the Opposition at this juncture. Intelligence having been received of the equipment of a fleet at Brest to supply and reinforce the East and West India squadrons, Admiral Kempenfeldt was despatched to intercept it with twelve sail of the line. Kempenfeldt met the enemy some thirty leagues from Ushant, the convoy being, in some degree, scattered by a storm; and he succeeded in taking fifteen transports, conveying above a thousand soldiers and above five hundred seamen. Next, he prepared to engage the ships of war, which he found forming in battle order, and commanded by the Comte de Guichen; but, contrary to his expectation, they amounted to nineteen sail of the line, besides two others, armed *en flûte*. In the face of so superior a force, Kempenfeldt reluctantly forbore from an attack, and sailed back to England. His return, which took place just before the Christmas Recess, became a signal for the loudest clamours and most violent invectives against his chief, Lord Sandwich. When the Secretary of the Treasury in the House of Commons was moving the usual adjournment, "What! adjourn! adjourn!" said Byng the member for Middlesex, "we ought to sit through the holidays to inquire into this miscarriage." Not less decided were the sentiments of Savile. "The 'question of Kempenfeldt'—thus he writes to Lord Rockingham, "seems to lie in a mighty narrow compass. 'When you sent out twelve ships, did you know they had nineteen or not? If you did not, culpable ignorance; if you did, worse.'" Sir George adds, however: "I do not say that these two dilemmas ought to hang a

"man." Kind and relenting reasoner, not to push his point to the last.

Parliament met again in the latter part of January. During the recess, the Ministers had, in some measure, matured their scheme of policy. They determined to proceed without Lord George Germaine, whom they found as keen as ever for the subjugation of the Colonies. Indeed he had taken occasion, not long since, in the House of Commons, to declare that be the consequences what they might, he never would be the Minister to sign any treaty that gave independence to America.† The King agreed to his resignation, provided it were dignified with a peerage. "No one," wrote His Majesty, "can then say he is disgraced." As his successor was selected a worn-out veteran, Welbore Ellis, — the "Manikin," and the "Grildrig," of Junius, — a man who was ridiculed for his diminutive stature, not in him redeemed by any loftiness of mind.

Accordingly, soon after Parliament had reassembled, the Gazette announced the creation of Germaine as Viscount Sackville, and the appointment of Ellis as Secretary of State. Loud was the Opposition outcry against both. But though the choice of Ellis might be laughed at or lamented, there was a more tangible objection to the peerage of Lord George. Even upon the first reports of it, the Marquis of Carmarthen moved in the Peers, that to recommend to the Crown for such a dignity any person labouring under so heavy a sentence of a Court Martial was derogatory to the honour of the House of Lords. And when the new-made Viscount took his seat the same motion was renewed. Thus the old complaint of his conduct at Minden was again ripped up; thus his first speech in that House was the attempt to clear himself from an opprobrious imputation.

The tidings that came from time to time of the progress of the war were by no means such as to raise the drooping spirits of the Ministry. In the West Indies,

* Sir George sent to George Rockingham. (Memoirs, by Lord Albemarle, vol. II. p. 440.)

† On Mr. James Lowther's motion. (Commons Debate, December 12, 1781.)

even before the close of the preceding year, the Marquis de Bouillé had surprised and retaken the island of St. Eustatia, mainly through the negligence of the English commander, Colonel Cockburn. Our other new conquests of Demerara and Essequibo were in like manner wrested back from us. Next De Bouillé turned his arms against our old and valuable possession of St. Kit's, where he landed 8,000 men, protected by De Grasse's fleet. Basseterre, the capital of the island, was built of wood, and could make no defence on the land side, but the troops and Militia, headed by General Fraser and Governor Shirley, took post on the rugged heights of Brimstone Hill. Sir Samuel Hood, also, who had followed the French Admiral in returning from the Chesapeake, interposed, by a bold manœuvre, between him and the French forces on shore, and most gallantly repulsed two separate attacks, by which De Grasse hoped to recover his lost anchorage ground. But Hood could only delay, he could not prevent, the surrender of the settlement; and the small islands of Nevis and Montserrat soon followed; so that of the entire Leeward cluster Barbadoes and Antigua only remained in British hands.

• Only a few days, however, from the capitulation of St. Kit's, the British fleet was cheered by the return of Rodney. He came out from England with recovered health, and most eager to engage. "I will bring you back a present of De Grasse,"—such were his words at parting to a private friend. He came out also with the fullest confidence of the administration. "The fate of this empire is in your hands," wrote to him Lord Sandwich, "and I have no reason to wish that it should be in any other."*

Another disappointment to the English Ministry, though rather at an earlier period, came from the Cape of Good Hope. Against the Dutch settlement in that quarter there had been despatched from England an expedition, under General Meadows and Commodore Johnstone. The Dutch settlement was, however, secured by the timely arrival of the Bailli de Suffren with his

* Life of Lord Rodney, by Mundy, vol. II. pp. 170—182.

fleet, on his way to the East Indies; and the British officers were reduced to an attempt upon some Dutch merchant-ships that lay at anchor in Saldanha Bay, about fourteen leagues to the northward of Cape Town. The enterprise was successful, and several prizes were made; but they could afford no equivalent for the frustration of the design upon the Cape.

But all other disappointments—since Lord Cornwallis's at least—were cast into the shade by the loss of the island of Minorca. General Murray had continued to maintain St. Philip's Castle with the greatest gallantry. Thus, on one occasion, by a sudden and well-directed sally, he had surprised and chased the Duke de Crillon from his head-quarters at Cape Mola. But besides the havoc of war, our soldiers were laid low by diseases—not putrid fevers only, but scurvy and dysentery had set in among them. It was found that their zeal often rose superior to their strength. We are told of several soldiers who died on guard, their generous ardour to defend the place having made them hide their sickness to the last, and kept them from the hospitals. In the beginning of February there remained less than 700 fit for duty; and even of these five-sixths were already tainted with the scurvy. The General having left nothing that valour or skill could do untried, found it necessary to capitulate on the 5th of the same month. The troops felt that sickness, and nothing but sickness, had subdued them, and were heard to exclaim with honourable indignation as they marched to lay down their arms, that they surrendered them to God alone. They obtained not merely all the honours of war by the articles of capitulation, but moreover, as Murray gratefully acknowledged, the most kind and considerate treatment from the free will of their gallant enemy.* And thus was the best harbour of the Mediterranean lost to England.

Meanwhile the campaign in the House of Commons was still as eagerly pursued. Before the close of

* General Murray's despatch of Feb. 16. 1782. See also the Ann. Regist. for that year, p. 216., and Coxe's *Bourbon Kings of Spain* vol. v. p. 208.

January, Fox, in a most noble speech, complained of the ill success of our naval forces, and ascribed it solely to Lord Sandwich. Early next month he brought these charges to a vote, when the Government prevailed against him by a majority of only twenty-two. A fortnight afterwards Fox renewed the same motion in another form; when in a fuller House, the Ministerial majority dwindled to nineteen. But there now stepped forward, as the principal assailant of Lord North, a member far indeed below Fox in ability and eloquence, but as greatly his superior in age, in experience, in disinterested views. This was General Conway. Much as he had failed as a leading Minister some years before, it was not forgotten that he had been the person to propose the repeal of the obnoxious Stamp-Act; and he enjoyed high respect on all sides as a gallant soldier,* as a high-minded and accomplished gentleman.* On the 22nd of February, the next sitting of the House after the Navy debate, he moved an Address to the King entreating His Majesty "that the war on the Continent of North America might no longer be pursued for the impracticable purpose of reducing the inhabitants of that country to obedience." In reply, or rather explanation, the new Secretary of State, Mr. Walpole Ellis, made a most ambiguous statement of his views, giving Burke some reason to exclaim that only the person and not the system had been changed; and at last, with all the exertions of the Ministers, they only prevailed by a melancholy majority of one, the numbers being for the motion 193, and against it 194.

No sooner were these numbers announced than Fox rose to taunt Lord North with delay in bringing forward his Budget for the year. Being answered that the business was fixed for the 25th, Colonel Barré next inveighed against the Minister for bringing it forward at all. An angry scene ensued. Barré, besides calling

* The politics of Conway, though at all times rather vague, are described at this time by his close friend Horace Walpole. "He had never engaged in any concert or council with Lord Rockingham and if he leaned to any faction by ties it was to the Duke of Grafton, who chose him into Parliament, and who adhered to Lord Shelburne." (*Memorials of Fox*, vol. I. p. 448.)

Lord North "the scourge of his country," applied to his conduct the epithets of "indecent and scandalous," and Lord North retorted with "insolent and brutal." The Speaker interposed, and both the Members begged pardon.

On the 26th, according to his promise, Lord North made his financial statement, and explained the terms on which a new loan of 13,500,000*l.* had been contracted. Whatever the terms might be, there was no doubt as to their ill reception. Whatever the terms might be, Fox was sure to start up, as he did, with accusations of the Minister—that he had brought the country to the eve of bankruptcy—that he had made a corrupt bargain—that from the public revenue he reserved not a run for contractors, placemen, and members of Parliament.

On the 27th General Conway, encouraged by the nearly equal numbers on his first motion, brought forward a second to the same effect, but in another form—a Resolution against any further attempts to reduce the insurgent Colonies. On this occasion the Ministers did not venture upon open or direct tactics. Lord North only pleaded for a short delay to convince the House that Ministers were sincere in their intention not to recruit the army in America; and Wallace, the Attorney-General, declared himself glad with a Bill enabling the Government to treat with revolted Colonies on the basis of a truce. On these grounds Wallace moved that the debate should be adjourned. Nevertheless, so strong was now the tide setting in against the war in North America, that Conway's resolution was carried against the whole force of Government by 234 against 215.

The Resolution thus carried, being sent up to the King through an Address, received from His Majesty an assenting but a cold and guarded reply. Upon this, General Conway followed up his advantage by moving on the 1st of March a new Address to inform the Sovereign that the House would consider as enemies to the King and country all those who should advise the further prosecution of offensive war in North America. Lord North declared the motion unnecessary, but did not venture to divide the House against it. Rigby, incited beyond all bounds at the thought of losing office after so

many years of happy tenure, attacked the Opposition with great warmth, but was sternly rebuked by Pitt, and told that the nation was weary of paying him. "Undoubtedly," thus answered the veteran jobber, "I am not tired of receiving money; but am I to be told that because men receive the emoluments of office, they are the authors of our ruin?" Finally, after long debate but no division, the new Address was passed.

* Not deterred by these heavy blows on the administration, the Attorney-General rose next day to explain the details of his Bill for Peace. "The only proper way," said Fox, "of treating such a proposition from such a quarter would be to burst out a laughing, and then walk out of the House!" Fox then proceeded to inveigh against the Ministers in terms which, standing as they do on record, should certainly have had some influence, however slight, on his own conduct next year. "From the moment," he cried, "when I shall make any terms with one of them, I will rest satisfied to be called the most infamous of mankind. I could not, for an instant, think of a coalition with men who in every public and private transaction, as Ministers had shown themselves void of every principle of honour and honesty. In the hands of such men I would not trust my honour even for a minute." Who could have expected after such words as these to see, but twelve months later, Lord North side by side with Fox as Cabinet colleagues and familiar friends?

Flushed with their recent victory, the Opposition had determined to strike another and yet another blow until they finally prevailed. On the 8th of March, Lord John Cavendish brought forward a string of Resolutions ascribing all our losses to want of foresight and ability in Ministers. But he was disappointed in the issue, since he found a majority of ten against his motion. This debate, which turned, in a great measure, on the expected change of Government, is mainly remarkable for the declaration which it drew from Pitt. "For myself," he said, "I cannot expect to take any share in a new administration; and were my doing so more within my reach, I never would accept a subordinate situation." So lofty an announcement from a stripling of twenty-

three—from a young lawyer just beginning to go the Western Circuit—might startle by its boldness, but was justified by his genius.

On the 15th the attack on the administration was renewed by Sir John Rous, one of the members for Suffolk, a Tory on principle, as he avowed, and up to this time a firm supporter of Lord North. It was therefore with the greater weight that this independent country gentleman now came forward with a direct vote of No Confidence. In the debate which followed, great merriment was caused by one Member's—Sir James Marriott's—pedantic folly. Desiring to afford a technical proof of the justice of the war, he observed that, even if Representation were held necessary to give the right of Taxation, America was already represented in the British Parliament. "She is represented," said Sir James, "by the Members for the county of Kent, since 'in the Charters of the Thirteen Provinces they are declared to be part and parcel of the Manor of Greenwich.'" Yet, though Sir James Marriott was the Parliamentary assessor of this singular argument, the honour of its original invention must rather be ascribed to Mr. George Hardinge.* We might Lord North have exclaimed on this occasion: "Save me, oh! save me from my friends!"

The division upon Sir John Rous's motion left the Ministers with a bare majority of nine. Nor had their majority only diminished in amount, it had changed in quality; it had ceased to be any token of public feeling in their favour. Their numbers were now, in great measure, derived from merely Nomination seats. Take, for example, the very strong-hold of the smaller boroughs in that age. The two members for the county of Cornwall voted against Lord North, but of its borough representatives who took part in this division, there were eight opponents, and no less than thirty supporters of the Government.

While the minority on Sir John Rous's Resolution were still waiting in the lobby, Fox announced to them

* Compare the *Parl. Hist.*, vol. xxii. p. 1184., with Lord Campbell's *Lives of the Chancellors*, vol. v. p. 352.

that, if unsuccessful then, a new motion to the same effect would be made on the Wednesday following, the 20th of the month. Lord Surrey was the orator intended. But for some time past it had been manifest — and to none more clearly than to Lord North — that although the downfall of the Ministry might be a little delayed, or a little quickened, it could not, at that juncture, be averted. With honest zeal he had been striving to reconcile the King's mind to this unavoidable necessity. On the 10th, at last, His Majesty agreed that the Chancellor should see Lord Rockingham, and learn from him on what terms he might be willing to construct another Ministry. Lord Rockingham's demands were found to be, that a Ministry should be formed on the basis of peace and economy, and that three Bills, namely, Sir Philip Clerke's on Contractors, Mr. Burke's on Economical Reform, and Mr. Crewe's on Revenue Officers — should be made Government measures. To the basis Thurlow offered no objection, but he would by no means consent to the three Bills. At last, in a final conference with Rockingham, the Chancellor broke off in much wrath, declaring (and with many an oath, no doubt) that he would have no further communication with a man who thought the exclusion of a contractor from Parliament, and the disfranchisement of an exciseman, of more importance than the salvation of the country at this crisis. "Lord Rockingham," added he, "is bringing things to a pass where either his head or the King's must go, in order to settle which of them is to govern the country!"*

Scarcely less ardent were, at one time, the feelings of the Sovereign himself. He contemplated, with the utmost aversion, his return to the oligarchy of the great Whig Houses. He had even some design of taking his departure for Hanover if the terms required of him should be altogether irreconcilable with his sense of right. Such a design had once before arisen in his mind in the midst of the Gordon riots. We now find a mysterious hint of it in his letters to Lord North; and

* See the extracts from Mr. Adam's MSS. preserved by Lord John Russell in his *Memorials of Fox*, vol. i. p. 200.

it is certain, writes Horace Walpole, that for a fortnight that the Royal yacht was expediting and preparing for his voyage. What further steps His Majesty may have had in view, — whether his secession was to be permanent or temporary, — whether he meant to leave the Queen as Regent or to take her and the Princes with him, — can at present only be surmised.*

It appears, however, that by degrees, the King became more reconciled to the present, or more hopeful of the future. Lord North being with him on the afternoon of the 20th, His Majesty acknowledged that, considering the temper of the Commons, he thought the administration at an end. "Then, Sir," said Lord North, "had I not better state the fact at once?" — "Well, you may do so," replied the King. Eager to make use of this permission, Lord North hastened down to the House of Commons in Court dress. He rose to speak at the same moment with Lord Surrey, and neither would give way. Loud were the shouts and cries in that thronged House; the one party calling for Lord Surrey, and the other for Lord North. At length, to restore some order, Fox moved "That the Earl of Surrey do first speak." But immediately Lord North, with presence of mind mixed with pleasantry, started up again. "I rise," he said, "to speak to that motion;" and, as his reason for opposing it, stated that he had resigned, and that the Ministry was no more. Next, in some farewell sentences, he proceeded, with excellent taste and temper, to thank the House for their kindness and indulgence, and he would add, assurance, during so many years. And finally, to leave time for his successors, he proposed and carried an adjournment of some days.

There was on this occasion another slight but characteristic incident which more than any eye-witness has recorded. It was a cold wintry evening, with a fall of snow. The other Members, in expectation of a long

* *Letter to Horace Walpole, March 18. 1782.* According to Henry James Lord Holland, who transcribed this passage for the Fox MSS. "King George the Fourth told me a story of his father's going to Hanover, and described with more humanity than reverence his arrangement of the details, and 'copied out the names of the ladies and gentlemen.'"

debate, had dismissed their carriages. Lord North, on the contrary, had kept his waiting. He put into it one or two of his friends, whom he invited to go home with him; and then, turning to the crowd chiefly composed of his bitter enemies, as they stood shivering and clastering near the door, he said to them with a placid smile—“You see, gentlemen, the advantage of being in the secret. Good night”—“No man,” says Mr. Adam of his speech and whole conduct that evening, “ever showed more calmness, cheerfulness, and serenity. The temper of his whole family was the same. I dined with them that day, and was witness to it.”

Thus ended Lord North's administration of twelve years. It is certainly strange, on contemplating these twelve years, to find so many harsh and rigorous measures proceed from the most gentle and good-humoured of Prime Ministers. Happy had but greater firmness in maintaining his own opinions been joined to so much ability in defending opinions even when not his own!

Even as to the disasters and miscarriages, however, which could not be denied in this administration, the friends of Lord North contended that, in truth, he was not answerable for them. The points in his favour were argued with great spirit only a few days before his fall, by Mr. George Onslow, in the House of Commons. Why, said Mr. Onslow, have we in this war against America such ill success? Mainly, he continued, from the support and countenance given in that House to American rebellion. The army of Washington had been called by Opposition “our army;” the cause of the Americans had been called “the cause of liberty;” and one gentleman (this was Burke), while lavishing his praises on Dr. Franklin and Mr. Laurens, had declared that he would prefer a prison in company with them to freedom in company with those who were supporting the cause of England. But this vindication, though spirited, nay, though true, is faulty, because, though true, it is not the whole truth,—because it overlooks what an statesman should, the certainty that when free principles are at stake dissensions will arise in a nation.

On viewing the two principal parties in the conflict, Lord North's and Lord Rockingham's, we are scarcely

call either generous and large-minded on every point, and so far as regards both men and measures. Lord North's party had some narrow views of national policy, but it freely welcomed to its high places high ability, however unconnected. Lord Rockingham's, on the contrary, was more liberal in its political opinions, but as to men of genius, if low-born, it would receive them only as its servants and retainers; it almost avowedly regarded power as an heir-loom in certain houses.*

Lord Rockingham's personal deficiencies must also at such a crisis be lamented. His high character, distinguished by honour and integrity, was not free from the alloy of vehement party-spirit, and was not supported by even the semblance of ability. How far the best judges deemed him fitted for official labour may be seen from this one fact, that Lord Chatham, if called upon to form an administration in 1778, had designed to propose to him the post of Chamberlain.† Lord Rockingham's own description of himself is scarcely more encouraging. Thus in 1766, did he write to a friend: — "The continual hurry from the late occasion occupies my mind so much that I can hardly remember anything."‡ This was in his first administration, when his mind was at its best; but in his second, though but fifty-two years of age, his health and strength were even at the outset much impaired.

It was not, however, to Lord Rockingham that the King in the first instance applied. On the day after Lord North's public resignation, His Majesty sent for Lord Shelburne and offered him the lead of the new Ministry. Lord Shelburne, who was bound by his engagements to Wentworth House, honourably refused the

* It is remarkable how far the old Whig party such exclusiveness had become an article of faith. Thus writes Thomas Moore, as the result of some private lectures which he had heard: "A few 'Whig Whistles' are our only security for the Constitution. The 'Duke of Devonshire' &c. (Diary, May 30. 1815, vol. ii. p. 316. ed. 1855.)"

† North's resignation, in March, 1778, as published in the *Memoirs of Lord North*, i. 182.

‡ Letter to George Coker, Jan. 11. 1766, printed in the *Memoirs* by Lord Rockingham, i. 267.

naming prize. Thereupon, after one more as ineffectual offer to Lord Gower, the Premiership reverted to Lord Rockingham, although to spare the King's feelings the earlier communications still passed through Lord Shelburne's hands. But this course, though it might be useful as regards the Royal sensibilities, had, on the other hand, the ill effect of arousing or confirming Rockingham's jealousy towards his coadjutor. Thus, when Shelburne had obtained from the King a peerage for Mr. Dunning, Rockingham felt it incumbent upon him as a counterpoise to insist upon the same favour for Sir Fletcher Norton. In this manner did Dunning become Lord Ashburton, and Norton, Lord Grantley.

Within a week the new Cabinet was formed. Rockingham became First Lord of the Treasury, with Lord John Cavendish as Chancellor of the Exchequer; Admiral Keppel, now raised to the rank of Viscount, First Lord of the Admiralty; the Duke of Richmond, Master General of the Ordnance; and Mr. Fox, Secretary of State. These five—all of most unexceptionable pedigrees—were strictly of the Rockingham section; but the five next members of the Cabinet had been followers of Chatham. These were Lord Shelburne as the other Secretary of State, the third or American Secretaryship being now abolished; Lord Camden, President of the Council; the Duke of Grafton, Privy Seal; General Conway, Commander in Chief; and Lord Ashburton, Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster. Thus then the Cabinet consisted of five Rockinghams and five Shelburnes, while, as if to hold the balance between these equal numbers, there was a high Tory Chancellor, Lord Thurlow, retaining the Great Seal!

A general and a just surprise was caused by this last arrangement. No doubt it gratified the King, but such was not probably Rockingham's chief motive in making it, since his Majesty's pleasure was by no means much consulted in the other offices. So far indeed was the contrary notorious, that Lord North made it the subject of one of his good-humoured jests. "I was abused," he said, "for lying Gazettes, but there are more lies in this one than in all mine. 'Yesterday His Majesty was PLEASED to appoint the Marquis of Rockingham, Mr.

"Charles Fox, and the Duke of Richmond meeting, he may rather therefore ascribe the continuance of the dispute to the jealousy of the two sections in the Cabinet, and either Dunning from the one side or Norton from the other should obtain the great law-prize. It had already been declined by Camden in consideration of his own advancing years.

Burke, as has been seen, was not admitted to the Cabinet. In a letter hitherto unpublished, he refers to his position at this time in a tone of great mortification, but with a kind of proud humility: "You have been misinformed. I make no part of the Ministerial arrangement. Something in the official line may possibly be thought fit for my measure."† Burke became Paymaster of the Forces, and was further gratified by a small appointment to his son. Barré was Treasurer of the Navy, Thomas Townshend Secretary at War, and Sheridan Under Secretary of State. Kenyon was Attorney, and John Lee Solicitor General. Henry Dundas continued in office as Lord Advocate. More than one of the smaller posts was tendered to the choice of Pitt, especially that of Vice-Treasurer of Ireland, which it was thought would be the more acceptable to him as it had been formerly held by his father.‡ Yet it is hard to believe such offers real and sincere, since scarcely three weeks before, Pitt had publicly declared in the House of Commons that he would never accept a subordinate place in any new administration.

No sooner were the new Ministers appointed, than important and difficult questions pressed upon them for decision. Of these none was more important and more difficult, or, as it proved, more pressing in point of time, than that of Ireland. But here some account, which I have purposely reserved till now, of the transactions in that kingdom during the few last years will be required.

The demands of Ireland were caused, or at least hastened, by the offers to America. When in the spring of

* Memoirs by Lord Albemarle, vol. ii. p. 467.

† Original MS. in my possession, dated March 25. 1782. He is writing for a post for place, but the name does not appear.

‡ This offer is stated probably from Mr. Pitt's own information. in his *Lives of the Great Ministers*, vol. i. p. 66. ed. 1822.

Lord North had proposed and carried through his offer to lay Propositions to Congress, it was not long ere he received a despatch upon the subject from John Hobart, Earl of Buckinghamshire, at that time Lord Lieutenant of Ireland. "I have been pressed," said his Excellency, "by many of His Majesty's principal servants and other gentlemen, who have uniformly and steadily supported His Majesty's measures in Parliament, to lay before your Lordship their humble hope and their earnest request that whatever privileges or advantages in trade shall be granted to the Colonies, if the Conciliatory plan shall take effect, may be extended to Ireland, and that the Colonies may not in any respect be put upon a better footing than Ireland."* This request was too obviously reasonable and too strongly backed to be resisted by the Government. Propositions were accordingly laid before the British House of Commons for the relief, and, as it were, enfranchisement, of the Irish trade. With the noblest public spirit Burke gave his zealous support to these proposals, though directly against the wishes and instructions of his constituents at Bristol. But here again Lord North's want of energy and of fixed purpose wrought evil. He gave way far too readily to the opposition which the proposals provoked in Parliament, and to the numerous petitions against them which came in from divers parts of England. In the result, therefore, most of the advantages designed for Ireland came to be relinquished; only some relief being given to the linen trade, and some openings allowed in the African and West Indian commerce.

Meanwhile, there was carried through the Irish Houses a Bill for the relief of the Roman Catholics, similar to the Act upon the same subject which passed in England that year. There was also carried in Ireland a Bill for the national defence, by the establishment of a Militia in that kingdom. The Parliament and people seemed for the time contented. But next year, when it plainly appeared how small were the commercial concessions made in England, and that no more were intended, the murmurs

* The Lord Lieutenant to Lord North, March 22, 1770. *Life of Grattan*, by his Son, vol. i. p. 298

of the Irish rose. The merchants of Dublin, meeting in the Tholsel, expressed their resentment at the "unjust," "illiberal, and impolitic opposition of many self-interested" "people in Great Britain." Hence they bound themselves, until a better policy should prevail, neither directly nor indirectly to import or use any British goods which could be produced or manufactured in Ireland. In this Non-Importation agreement* they were following the significant example of America; and they were followed in their turn by several counties and towns in Ireland, as Cork, Kilkenny, and Roscommon.

It must be acknowledged of the Irish people at that juncture, that their distresses were most real, and their complaints well founded. Besides the customary restraints upon their commerce, an embargo had been in force ever since 1776. Thus their great staple commodities of beef and butter were shut up and perishing in their warehouses, lest they should serve to supply the enemy; while at the same time, the linen, their great and only free manufacture, was contracted under the fatal blight of the North American war.* Other causes of distress, though kept out of view by the Irish landlords, are recorded on at least as good authority. Thus writes the Lt. Lieutenant: "The great leading mischief" "is the rise of rents, the whole of which advance is in" "addition to the former remittance drawn from hence by" "those persons of property who never reside here."†

Another train of events at the same juncture brought the patriots a large accession of strength in urging their demands. By the calls of the American war the country had been stripped of troops. From the want of compulsory clauses, the Militia Act had remained a dead letter. Thus, when a French invasion seemed to be impending, the kingdom was found almost entirely defenceless. When there came intelligence, official, though unfounded, that the enemy meditated an attack upon the north, when, in consequence, the people of Belfast and Carrickfergus asked of the Government to send some force for their protection, — the Government at Dublin

* *Annals*, 1779, p. 123. See also Hardy's *Life of Lord Charles*.

could not at the time spare them any greater force than sixty troopers.* It was natural then that the people of Belfast and Carrickfergus, loyal as they were, should endeavour to protect themselves. They took up arms, and formed themselves into two or three companies. The spirit spread; and thus by degrees through all parts of Ireland, but more especially in Ulster, there arose independent companies of Volunteers. In May, 1779, they were already computed at upwards of ten thousand in number.† Many of the chief men in the country appeared at their head, as the Earl of Clanricarde in Connaught, and the Earl of Charlemont in Ulster. They chose their own officers, and though claiming arms, as Militia, from the Government stores, were in no degree subject to the Government control.

These irregular proceedings caused great perplexity in England. To defend the country from invasion was, of course, not only excusable but praiseworthy, but, on the other hand, it was clearly both unconstitutional and dangerous to meet in arms without any direction from the Crown. On the whole, then, as soon as the immediate alarm of an invasion passed away, the Secretary of State, writing of the Volunteer Companies, instructed the Lord Lieutenant, "that they be discouraged by all proper and gentle means."‡ But this order, so far at least as regarded success in its result, was far more easy to give than to obey. All the little delicate means of hinting and implying, without in set terms expressing disapprobation, fell unheeded on dull and reluctant ears, and the Volunteers continued to grow both in numbers and in fame. Before the end of 1779, they might boast that they were not far short of 50,000 strong.

Under such circumstances did the Irish Parliament meet again in October, 1779. The prospects of "the Castle" were dark and lowering; those of the Opposition never yet so bright. They had now something better than party spirit to support them. They had a pressing grievance, they had a popular cause. They

* The Lord Lieutenant to Lord Weymouth, May 24, 1779.

† See Lord Rockingham's speech in the House of Commons. (Parl. Hist. vol. xx. p. 646.)

‡ Lord Weymouth to Lord Buckingham, May 1, 1779.

wanted but an able leader; and such a one they found in Mr. Grattan.

Henry Grattan was born in 1746. His father was a lawyer of some note; during many years both Recorder of, and Member for, the city of Dublin. Young Grattan being designed for the same profession, was entered at the Temple. Looking back in later life to his residence in London, he reverts with especial pleasure to the opportunities which he enjoyed of hearing Chatham in the House of Lords. He has left a vivid description of that great orator, and there is one of his remarks, written long after the event, which, considering his own control of popular assemblies, and his own influence on popular opinion, seems deserving of peculiar weight. "If he (Lord Chatham) had come into power in 1777, I think he could have kept America. To him it was possible; to Lord North it certainly was not."*

From an early age did Grattan apply himself to the practice of oratory. But so singular even then were his manners, that his landlady in England requested of his friends that he might be taken away. For the gentleman, she said, is used to walk up and down the garden most of the night, talking to himself; and though alone, he is addressing some one on all occasions by the name of "Mr. Speaker;" so that he cannot possibly be in his right mind!

On returning to Dublin, Mr. Grattan began to practice as a barrister, but met with no great success. Success, indeed, by his own account, he seems to have neither desired nor deserved. Here are his own words to a friend: "I am now called to the Bar without knowledge or ambition in my profession. The Four Courts are of all places the most disagreeable. My purpose is undetermined, — my passion is retreat. I am resolved to gratify it at any expense. There is certainly repose, and may be an elegance in insignificance."†.

In 1775 Grattan entered the Irish House of Commons, as Member for the borough of Charlemont, and through

* *Life of Henry Grattan*, by his Son, vol. i. p. 237.

† *Life of Henry Grattan*, Feb. 24. 1772, as published in *Grattan's Life*.

the friendship of the Earl of that name. At first he was not much distinguished. But the opportunity was coming which would give his genius full play, and entitle his name for ever to the reverent recollection of his countrymen. His eloquence may be compared to that of the great orator whom he had so often heard and so much admired — Lord Chatham. On one point indeed they were most unlike. So skilled was Chatham in all the graces of action and address, that those very graces have sometimes been urged against him in reproach. The exact reverse was the case with Mr. Grattan. Thus speaks of him one of his contemporaries in his latter days: — “Grattan,” says Lord Byron, “would have been near “it (a great orator) but for his Harlequin delivery. . . . “Curran used to take him off, bowing to the very ground, “and thanking God he had no peculiarities of manner “or appearance, in a way irresistibly ludicrous.”* But, on the other hand, his eloquence had many of those lightning flashes, those vehement and impassioned bursts, in which Chatham shone. Like Chatham he was wont to dwell on great principles far rather than on subordinate details. Like Chatham he had a spirit alive to every call of freedom, and chafing, as though instinctively, at every form of oppression or of wrong. There was in him, as in the English statesman, a genuine force and fervour, which, as a rushing torrent, worked out its own way, and which sometimes with the common herd might bear the name of madness. Whenever in debate the occasion was greatest, then were Chatham and Grattan greatest, too; then, fearless of the frowns of power, they knew how to embody their bold thoughts in some striking phrase which, as a watchword, flew from mouth to mouth; then did their whole age feel the impress of their resolute will and glowing words.

Grattan was an Irishman most truly and thoroughly; an Irishman in heart, in soul, in mind. With all the quiet talents of his countrymen, he had also some of their defects. It is remarkable that in the published collection of his speeches the very first sentence of the very first

* Memorandum by Lord Byron, in *Memorabilia*, vol. ii. p. 208. and vol. iii. p. 234. ed. 1832.

harangue contains a close approach at least to what we are accustomed to call an IRISH BULL. "I have entreated your attendance," says he, "that you might in the most public manner deny the claim of the British Parliament, and with one voice lift up your hands against it!"* There may also be ascribed to him some of that straining at effect — that unwillingness to say a plain thing in simple terms — that vehement exaggeration both in sentiment and style — by which the genius of his countrymen is but too often dimmed and marred. Take as one instance, out of many, Grattan's words on the French advance upon Moscow: "Ambition is omnivorous; it feasts on famine, and sheds tons of blood that it may starve on ice, in order to commit a robbery on desolation."† Thus his eloquence had, perhaps, something of a local tinge, and though thriving and luxuriant in its own land, did not, at least in middle life, bear transplantation to our English soil. His temper, though warm, was generous and manly; he loved, with all his heart, the whole of Ireland, and not merely one of its ports and one of its creeds. To him at least can I never be ascribed the fault with which so many of his countrymen are charged; that even within the ranks of the same party they are prone to backbite and revile each other. "I never knew," thus on one occasion spoke King George the Third to an eminent statesman now alive, "I never knew one Scotchman speak ill of another, unless he had a reason for it; but I never knew one Irishman speak well of another unless he had a reason for it."

The first steps of Grattan's political career were probably much aided by his connection with a man so highly respected as Lord Charlemont. At the meeting of the Irish Houses in October, 1779, he had ready an Amendment to the Address, claiming "Free Export and Import" as the birthright of an Irishman. But he consented to alter these expressions, after a speech from Henry Flood — already one of the leading Members of the Commons, and in after years most conspicuous as his

* Speech of April 19. 1780.

† Speech of May 25. 1815.

rival and opponent. He saw, as Mr. Flood suggested, that some clearer and shorter words might more powerfully stir the public mind. Therefore, instead of unrestricted Export and Import, he put forth a phrase of which in our own time we have once more felt the force and power — "Free Trade." Against the Address, as thus amended, the Government did not venture to divide. It was carried up to the Lord Lieutenant in state by all the Members. The streets were lined by the Volunteers in full array: they had the Premier Peer of Ireland, the Duke of Leinster, at their head; and amidst loud acclamations from the people, presented arms to the Speaker as he passed along.

Flushed with this success, and finding the King's answer when sent over couched only in vague and general terms, Grattan moved and carried, by a large majority, a Resolution: "That at this time it would be inexpedient to grant new taxes." Next, in like manner, he carried through a vote giving the Supplies not, as usual, for two years, but for six months only. It is a strong proof of the growing popular enthusiasm, that Grattan found supporters at this time even in the ranks of the administration. Both Mr. Flood, though Vice-Treasurer, and Mr. Burgh, though Prime Sergeant, had spoken in support of his amendment. Mr. Burgh proceeded to a further and far more vehement speech, though well aware that he should lose his office by it. "Talk not to me of peace," he cried. "Ireland is not in a state of peace; it is smothered war. England has sown her laws like dragons' teeth, and they have sprung up in armed men!"

By the lower orders the same spirit was shown, far less laudably. Some four or five thousand of the Dublin populace rose in riot during the last of the debates, armed with pistols and swords, and calling on for a Free Trade and a Short Money Bill. They stopped the Speaker, Mr. Pery, in his coach, and endeavoured to administer an oath to him that he would vote as they desired. Several other Members were in like manner insulted and mal-treated. Scott, the Attorney-General, was, however, the principal object of their rage. They broke open and sacked his house, and pursued him at home, rushed to the Law Courts, and threatened him.

resolving, as they said, to have his life if they could. The Volunteers are accused of showing no great alarm to repress these outrages; and when the Attorney General went down to the House of Commons, he complained of the conduct of the people, he found his complaint but coldly received. Mr. Yelverton, in reply, called him "the uniform drudge of every administration, as though that had been a sufficient reason for tearing him to pieces!"

The grievances of Ireland at that time, and for some time afterwards, were the fault of her laws, more than of her government. Yet the English Opposition, always excepting Burke and some besides — would view them only as affording grounds of crimination on the latter. Before the year 1779 had closed, votes of censure on the Ministers as regarded the state of Ireland were moved by Lord Shelburne in the Peers and by Lord Upper Ossory in the Commons. Lord North prevailed in both by large majorities. He promptly showed, however, that the warning example of America had not been lost upon him. He fixed it to consider the relief of the Irish people, when he introduced, by a most able and statesmanlike speech, three comprehensive propositions to concede their recent claims and establish their commercial equality. The Bills of Lord North to that effect were carried through at the beginning of 1780, with scarce a breath of dissent, unless from Lord George Gordon, and a few more of the same kind — men despised within the House, and important only as reflecting some popular prejudices out of doors.

Such wise concessions — and wiser still had they been earlier — were received as became them by many of the leading men in the Irish Parliament, with expressions of their regard for the British Legislature, and of their loyalty and attachment to the King. Yet this policy was far from producing all the good which was desired and designed. The arguments on the commercial grievances of Ireland had begun to stir the public mind upon

* *Life of Gordon*, by his Son, vol. i. p. 401. It is fair to observe, however, that the personal altercation was begun by Scott who had called Gordon "the Rascal of Sedition."

another and a kindred question—the legislative supremacy of England. That supremacy depended mainly on two statutes. First, there was the Act passed by a Parliament at Drogheda, in the reign of Henry the Seventh, and called “Poynings’s Law,” from the name of the Deputy, Sir Edward Poynings. Secondly and chiefly, there was an Act of the British Parliament in the sixth year of George the First. By Poynings’s Law all Bills before the Irish Parliament, except only Money Bills, were transmitted to the Privy Council of England, by which they could be either altered or suppressed. By the Act of George the First—a short Act of but two clauses, provoked by some judicial pretensions of the Irish House of Lords—there was asserted in the strongest terms the right of the King, aided by the Lords and Commons of Great Britain, to legislate for Ireland. It was natural for ardent minds, like Mr. Grattan’s, to scorn the subordination and dependence which that state of things implied. It was natural, also, that they should overlook the manifold perplexities that might flow from entire equality. For supposing one Parliament supreme at Dublin, while another Parliament was supreme for the sister island, what possible security could be framed that, for example, the one Parliament might not vote for peace, while the other was voting for war? Thus the Sovereign, as King of Great Britain, might be waging the fiercest hostilities against France, and yet at the same time, as King of Ireland, might be required to cultivate the most friendly connection with that Power.

Disregarding these contingent dangers, and full of fervour for his native country, Grattan was resolved to bring forward the question of her rights. It might be deemed perhaps imprudent, and certainly ungracious, to urge this new demand so immediately after the concession of the last. Even his friend, Lord Charlemont, here thought him rash and headlong. Even Burke, staunch as he was ever to Ireland, through good report and ill report, wrote at this time a private letter to Dublin which contained these words: “Will no one call that ‘madman Grattan?’” Still Grattan persevered. On the 19th of April, 1780, he submitted to the House of Commons a motion claiming for Ireland a separate legislative

equality with England. His speech on that occasion, according to his own judgment in his later years, was the best that he ever made. It did not, indeed, prevail at the time, but certainly it laid the foundation of subsequent success.

Other differences with England tended more and more to draw the popular support to Grattan's views. There was a commercial wrangle on the Sugar Duties. There was a Constitutional grievance on the Mutiny Bill. It being found that the Irish magistrates were no longer willing to enforce the British Mutiny Act, it became necessary to pass another in the Irish Parliament, but this was altered by the Privy Council, and its term from limited was made perpetual. The Irish Volunteers, also, by degrees assumed a higher tone. No longer content with separate commanders, they combined in 1781 to elect as their General-in-Chief Lord Charlemont, a man deservedly esteemed on all sides, but far more accomplished than able, and better fitted to adorn than to lead a party. These signs of the times were not lost upon the Government. Instead of the Earl of Buckinghamshire, they sent over the Earl of Carlisle, and provided the new Lord Lieutenant with a most able Secretary in Mr. Eden. But the current of popular opinion in Ireland was rising too high, perhaps, for any man, or body of men, to stem.

Still further stimulated by the tottering state of the Ministry in England, there met at Dungannon 242 delegates representing upwards of 140 bodies of Volunteers. They held their meeting in the church, and deliberated from noon till eight o'clock in the evening of the 15th of February, 1782. Finally, and without one dissentient, they adopted, among others, the following Resolution, which Grattan had prepared: "That a claim of any 'body of men other than the King, Lords, and Commons 'of Ireland, to bind this kingdom, is unconstitutional, 'illegal, and a grievance.'" On the 22nd, a motion to the same effect was made by Mr. Grattan in the Irish House of Commons. It was eluded by the skill of the Attorney-General, who asked for further time, but it was not long before it dared not be openly resisted. Two days later, on the 24th, at the same period, when

greatly to the strength of Grattan. First there was the Government's "unpardonable institution," as, writing in residence, Mr. Charles Sheridan most truly terms it, in excluding, or suffering to be included, the name of Ireland in no less than five British Statutes passed in the preceding Session. "People here,"—thus continues Sheridan—"were ignorant of this till Grattan produced the five Acts to the House of Commons; one of which Eden had been so imprudent as to publish in the Dublin Gazette. Previous to this, the general sense of the country was that the mere question of right should be suffered to sleep, provided the exercise of the power claimed under it should never again be resorted to in a single instance."*

Another circumstance that gave fuel to Grattan's fire was the co-operation of the Roman Catholics. A Bill for their further relief, introduced by Mr. Gardiner, was at this time pending, and was finally passed. Some of Grattan's principal coadjutors at that crisis—as Lord Charlemont and Mr. Flood—were not favourable to these claims. It was in spite of these gentlemen, or rather without their knowledge, that Grattan at the last moment sent down to the Delegates at Dungannon another Resolution which, on his authority, they passed, declaring that they rejoiced in the relaxation of the Penal Laws against their fellow subjects. And on the 20th of February, only two days before his great motion upon Irish Rights, Grattan rose in the House of Commons to support Mr. Gardiner's Bill. "I give my consent to it," he said, "because, as the mover of the Declaration of Rights, I should be ashamed of giving freedom to but six hundred thousand of my countrymen, when I could extend it to two millions more." These were noble words, and they had a just reward. Not merely one Irish sect or section, but all Ireland espoused the Irish claims.

With these reconciled millions at his back, and faltering foes before him, Grattan eagerly pressed on. In the course of March he gave notice of another motion, bring-

* Letter to his brother, Richard Sheridan, 17th March 1782.

ing the whole matter to an issue. He fixed it for the 16th of April immediately after the Easter holidays, and to give it additional lustre, he proposed and carried through the House an unprecedented form of summons: "That the Speaker do write Circular Letters to the Members, ordering them to attend that day, as they tender the rights of the Irish Parliament." Thus, as it chanced, the affairs of Ireland were approaching their most decisive crisis at the very time when from other causes Lord North's administration fell.

Ireland at that time needed beyond all question, for its Lord Lieutenant, a great statesman. The new Whig administration sent thither only a great Duke. They selected His Grace of Portland, not for ability, not for activity, not for knowledge, not for eloquence, for of all these he was utterly destitute, but for his rank and wealth, and above all, as the head of one of their principal "Revolution Families." Horace Walpole has in the following words described his previous career:—"He has lived in Ducal dudgeon with half a dozen toad-eaters secluded from mankind behind the ramparts of Burlington wall; and overwhelmed by debts without a visible expense of 2000*l.* a year."* As Secretary, went Colonel Richard Fitzpatrick, a frank soldier, an alert clear-headed man of business, and a devoted follower of Fox.

While these new appointments were in progress, the late Secretary, Mr. Eden, had come back to England, and posted to London in all haste, full of spleen at his own and his chief's recall. On the 8th of April, the day on which the House of Commons met after its adjournment, with the new Ministers in their places on their re-election, Eden sprung up, and while questioning the intentions of the Government, described in vehement terms the wretched state of Ireland, and concluded by moving for the repeal of the 6th of George the First. In reply to his speech, for the first time as Minister, Mr. Secretary Fox, who obtained, as he most justly might, of the unanimous vote of the servants of the Crown, only just

* *London Chronicle*, N. Mason, July 10, 1782, published in 1851.

should not be allowed even a few days for deliberation on a matter so momentous. According to a contemporary statement, he "overwhelmed Eden with shame — not with remorse." Certainly, at all events, he compelled Eden to withdraw his motion; but Fox also let fall some expressions that might be taken to denote in general terms his adherence, in theory at least, to the supremacy of England.

At Dublin, this declaration, though eagerly explained away, added not a little to the difficulties of Fox's friends. Fitzpatrick, at his first arrival, had been anxious to seek an interview with Lord Charlemont, and there to plead for delay. But Grattan was determined at all hazards to proceed. When Lord Charlemont came to his bed-side with the proposal for postponement, the sick patriot vehemently shrieked, — "No time! no time!" Thus, the popular chief gave the new Secretary little comfort, nor could he place any especial confidence in his colleagues, the other great officers of State. His own chief, the Duke, was a cypher; of Lord Lifford, and of Mr. Pery we find him write as follows: "The Chancellor, I believe, to be an honest man, but the Speaker 'is the most undisguised rogue I ever met with.'"

Intent on his own objects and his country's, — and how seldom are these terms identical in Ireland! — Grattan on the 16th of April, the day he had so solemnly fixed, brought forward his declaration of legislative independence. He had been and was ill; he looked emaciated and careworn; but his words were full of fire, and he seemed to shake off his illness as he rose. His friend Lord Charlemont used often afterwards to say, that if ever spirit could be said to set independent of body, it was on that occasion.† Grattan, with great judgment, treated the question as already carried and determined by the votes of the Irish Parliament, however the English might decide. Here are his own most memorable opening words: "I am now to address a free people. Ages

* Letter to Mr. Fox, April 17. 1782. (*Memorials of Lord John Russell*, vol. i. p. 396.)

† *Memoir of Grattan*, by Daniel Owen Madden, Esq. 2d. ed. 1847.

"have passed away, and this is the first moment in which
 "you could be distinguished by that appellation.
 "I found Ireland on her knees; I watched over her with
 "an eternal solicitude; I have traced her progress from
 "injuries to arms, and from arms to liberty. Spirit of
 "Swift! Spirit of Molyneux! your genius has prevailed!
 "Ireland is now a nation. In that new character I hail
 "her, and bowing to her august presence I say: ESTO
 "PERPETUA!"

The speech of the Great Commoner (for so at that period we may surely term him), concluded with an Address to the Crown, couched in most loyal terms, but declaring in full as peremptory language that no body of men save only the Parliament of Ireland had any authority or power to make laws by which that nation could be bound. Colonel Fitzpatrick, as commander-in-chief on the Ministerial side, found himself wholly unable to bring his forces to the charge. "Debate," — thus next day he writes to Fox, — "it could hardly be called, since "that implies a free discussion, and upon this occasion "no one man presumed to call in question a single word "advanced by Grattan, and spoke only to congratulate "Ireland on her emancipation, as they called it, and to "lead the mover from every quarter of the House with "the grossest and most fulsome adulation." Thus the Address of Grattan was carried in the Commons with triumphant unanimity. The House of Lords came to the same vote; and both Houses then adjourned to await the deliberations of the British Ministry and the proceedings of the British Parliament.

The Ministry in London, and above all Fox and Shelburne as its leading members, considered these events in Ireland with anxious care. In private they were far from approving of entire legislative equality. No doubt they discerned the Constitutional anomalies to which in the course of years it must give rise. They fore-saw that it must tend either to confusion (as it might), or to corruption (as it did.) Let the supremacy, wrote Lord Shelburne to where Nature has placed it — that is, he meant, in England.* Yet upon the whole, the

* See the account of the birth in the Life of Grattan, by his Son, vol. ii. p. 21.

Government resolved to concede the claims of the sister island in full. For this determination they appear neither liable to censure nor yet entitled to praise. It is not just to say, with some adherents of Lord North, that the rights of England were perilled through their want of firmness. It is not just to say, with Lord John Russell, that the peace of Ireland was preserved through their virtue and merit.* The truth is, that they did only what any Government of that day must have done. No Cabinet could have stemmed the Irish torrent except (and even then scarcely) the strongest and most powerful; and such a one could not have been formed in 1782 with parties as they then stood, and in the last throes of an unprosperous war. Fox and Shelburne yielded — not for any sordid aim, but for the public peace — against their private convictions. Fox and Shelburne yielded as North or Sackville, had they been in office, must have yielded too.

Under such circumstances, and with such views, Fox rose in the House of Commons on the 17th of May, to acknowledge the rights of Ireland, and to bring in a Bill for the repeal, in express terms, of the 6th of George the First. So strong was the conviction of the public necessity for such a course, that members of all parties concurred, and the repealing Bill passed both Houses, with no division, and with little debate. It was felt, as Fox had said truly and truly, that unwilling subjects are little better than enemies, and that the Irish people must, at all events, and at any price, be reconciled with England. Reconciled indeed they seemed to be as soon as the news of the Ministerial measures arrived in Dublin. The storm that had so lately loured, passed away. Expressions of joy and confidence succeeded. The purse-strings of their House of Commons

* Lord John Russell speaks of "their merit in overcoming these difficulties (of Ireland), which was mainly effected by the confidence in their principles and character," (*Memorials*, vol. i. p. 388.) But hear, on the other hand, their own Irish Secretary lament that no reliance at all was placed upon them: "I complained of the hardship of their (the popular leaders) giving us no more confidence than they would have done the late Government had it continued." (Colonel Fitzpatrick to Mr. Fox, April 17, 1782.)

were unlooked. To show their cordiality to England, they voted 100,000*l.* for the levy of 20,000 seamen. To show their gratitude to Grattan, they desired to vote the same sum to buy him an estate. That vote, proposed by Mr. Bagenal, would have been most readily carried if Grattan had pleased. Grattan was far from rich; he had scarcely, at that time, 500*l.* a year. Yet the first impulse of that most noble-minded statesman — of that “inimitable” patriot, as some of his successors in Ireland have not only copied, but found him — was to decline the money altogether. He was with difficulty prevailed upon by his friends to accept one half of it. At the same time he formed the resolution, perhaps more lofty than wise, never, under any circumstance, to take any place or office from the Crown.

The political horizon of John D. Eschom long free from clouds, was within a few weeks again, though less darkly, overcast. Flood was the rival of Grattan in Parliamentary eloquence, and greatly his superior in years and political standing. He shewed with bitter jealousy the popular gratitude which Grattan had earned, and he strove, not without some success, to turn the tide. He rose in the Irish House of Commons to suggest certain doubts how far the surrender of the English supremacy had been thorough and complete. The mere repeal of a declaratory law, said he, did not affect the principle, but left the law exactly where it stood before. As it happened, there were some events that seemed to give weight to his expressions. There was a silly motion by Lord Abingdon in the English House of Peers. There was a case of appeal from Ireland remaining over in the Court of King's Bench in England. Thus it was thought could not legally be sent back to Ireland, since it had been brought into the English Court before the Act of Repeal had passed, and it was accordingly decided by Lord Mansfield in the usual course of law. But at Dublin the cry forthwith arose, that England was re-

* “A pleasing proof of cordial friendship,” writes Lord Rockingham to the Duke of Portland. “We feel in this moment the most pressing want of seamen. It is no secret that we have now ten ships of the line with scarce a man to put in them.” (*Memoirs* by Lord Rockingham, ii. p. 477.)

mining her pretensions; and thus, through either idle or interested doubts,—in part by untoward circumstances, and in part by envious surmises,—the old flame burst forth anew. In vain did Mr. Fox declare in the House of Commons (this was in December 1782), that his intention when he proposed the repeal of the 6th of George the First had been to make “a full, complete, absolute, and perpetual surrender of the British legislative and judicial supremacy over Ireland.” In the ensuing Session, it was found requisite to quiet the alarms of the sister island by another Act, renouncing all authority over Ireland, whether legislative or judicial, in the most positive terms that language could devise.

Amidst this renewal of the agitation, the popularity of Grattan in some degree, though most unjustly, declined. Several times did it wax and wane again during the remainder of his long career. Yet throughout the whole of it, his stainless character, his eminent abilities, and the remembrance of the great part which he had played in 1782, gained him high and spontaneous tokens of respect. One of these, which I have heard from Sir Robert Peel, will scarcely, perhaps, bear its full significance in the eyes of any not themselves engaged in public life. Sir Robert stated that he had observed during the first years he sat in Parliament, as a proof of the veneration in which Grattan had been held in the Irish House of Commons, that those gentlemen who had been Members of that House with him at Dublin, and who were now again his colleagues in London, always addressed him with a “Sir,” as they would the Speaker, or a Royal Duke. That practice, said Sir Robert, was observed even by Lord Castlereagh, though at that time the leader of the House.

CHAPTER LXVI.

MEASURES of reform in accordance with previous pledges, claimed the early care of the new administration. They adopted and pressed forward two Bills which had been Mr. Crewe's and Sir Philip Clerke's; the one to prevent revenue officers from voting at elections; the other to prevent contractors from sitting in the House of Commons. Both Bills passed the Lower House with no very considerable opposition; but in the Upper, the Ministers had to combat the sharp, though fruitless resistance of their own colleague, the Lord Chancellor, who not only spoke, but divided the Peers against them.*

Another step in the popular direction, was to expunge from the Journals of the House of Commons the Resolution of 1769, annulling the election of Wilkes. An annual motion to this effect having been renewed by Wilkes himself, and seconded by Mr. Byng, the other Member for Middlesex, the Ministers in general concurred; and although Mr. Fox both retained and expressed his strong objection, a large majority decided against retaining the obnoxious words.

Of much more importance was the measure which Burke had promised on Economical Reform. In the first place, a Message was brought down to both Houses from the King recommending an effectual plan of retrenchment and economy, to be carried through all branches of the Public Expenditure, and to include His Majesty's own Civil List. Lord Shelburne, who moved the Address of Thanks in the Peers, would undertake, he said, to pledge himself, that the present was not as usual a mere Ministerial Address; "it was the genuine language of the Sovereign himself, proceeding from the heart."

* *Lives of the Chancellors*, by Lord Campbell, vol. v. p. 548.

In the House of Commons, Burke was lavish of his praises. "This," he cried, "is the best of Messages to the best of people from the best of Kings." But though Burke might be blamed for the exuberance of his panegyric, he incurred far heavier censure shortly afterwards by the curtailment of his Bill. When his measure was brought in, it was found to spare several of those institutions against which he had inveighed with the greatest energy two years before. Thus, besides a host of smaller offices, once denounced and now retained, both the Duchies of Cornwall and of Lancaster were left wholly unreformed. Some of these modifications in his original design might no doubt be prompted by Burke's own maturer thoughts; in others it is probable that he was merely called on to fulfil the decisions of the Cabinet in which he had no share. Here was one of the many evils of excluding that great genius from the Councils of the State.

Among the offices to be abolished by this Bill, was that of the third Secretary of State, or of Secretary of State for the Colonies, which it was thought useless to keep when the Colonies themselves were gone. The Lords of Trade and Plantations, the Lords of Police in Scotland, the principal officers of the Great Wardrobe, and of the Jewel Office, the Treasurer of the Chamber, and the Cofferer of the Household, and the six Clerks of the Board of Green Cloth, were, with other rubbish, swept away. It was provided that no pension exceeding 300*l.* a year, should be granted to any one person,—that the whole amount of the pensions granted in any one year should not exceed 600*l.*,—and that the names of the persons on whom they were bestowed, should be laid before Parliament in twenty days after the beginning of each Session,—until the whole Pension List should be reduced to 90,000*l.* There were also most praiseworthy regulations to secure the Secret Service Money from abuses by limiting its amount, and imposing a strict oath on the Secretaries of State who dispensed it.*

* See the Act 22 Geo. iii. c. 82. In the *Speech of a Noble "Lord,"* written 1796, Burke forcibly denounces the abuses with which in this Bill he had to struggle. He also is surrounded with

To Burke's great honour, we must add, that he was far from sparing his own office. On the contrary, he took in a separate Bill to regulate the Paymaster's department, and prevent enormous balances from accumulating in his hands, as had often happened heretofore, to the great profit of the holder of that place. It must likewise be acknowledged that the retrenchments which the main Bill effected, though curtailed, were still considerable; they amounted to upwards of 72,000*l.* a year. These savings were to be partly mortgaged to pay the new arrears upon the Civil List, which fell but little short of 300,000*l.*, and which were at once discharged. On the whole, it was an excellent, as well as comprehensive, measure, and only seemed the contrary from the too loud flourish of trumpets by which it had been heralded, and from the exaggerated expectations which that flourish had raised. This measure dignifying and dignified by the great name of Burke, as it seems to a later age, passed the House of Commons at the time certainly with little or no resistance from his enemies, but with quite as little celebration from his friends. In July it reached the Peers, where Lord Thurlow found great fault with it, and again did his utmost to defeat his colleagues; happily, however, in vain.

It may be observed, that the popular effect and impression of this Bill were still further lessened through the weakness of Lord Rockingham, who, while the measure was still pending, and before therefore its enactments could legally restrain him, consented to grant enormous pensions both to Lord Ashburton and Barré. This last in its gross receipts was of no less than 3,200*l.* a year,—above ten times the amount which, in Lord Rockingham's own judgment, as expressed in the new Bill, ought henceforth to be granted to any one person whatsoever! Still worse did this transaction seem when, before the final passing of the Bill, a letter was produced by Lord Shelburne in the House of Peers, showing that the first proposal of this enormous pension had come from Lord Rockingham himself! "I was thus left," wrote he many years later, "to support the grant

"happily, however, in vain."
 "happily, however, in vain, that was withheld, and with oblique
 "evening, and the day was over." (Works, vol. viii. p. 30.)

"of a name ever dear to me against the rude attacks of those who were at that time friends to the grantees."

Another Bill, which the new Ministers supported, but which had been introduced by Sir Harbord Harbord before their accession to office, was to punish the proved corruption of the borough of Cricklade. In strict conformity with the precedent of Shoreham, it was proposed to extend the franchise from the small town to the neighbouring Hundreds. This measure was opposed with the utmost warmth by the Opposer General, Lord Thurlow; Lord Mansfield and Lord Loughborough also spoke against it; nevertheless, it was carried through by large majorities. Cricklade being, like Shoreham, wholly venal, both had been much under the control of rich Nabobs; and Mr. Frederick Montagu stated in the House of Commons, that Lord Chatham, on being shown the former Bill, had used this striking phrase: "I am glad to find the borough of Shoreham is likely to be removed from Bengal to its ancient situation in the county of Sussex."

But the high authority of Chatham might be pleaded for much more extensive measures of Reform. Often in the House of Lords had he lamented the growing venality of the smaller boroughs, and proposed the immediate addition of a hundred County members. And once in conversing with Lord Buchan (this was in the year 1775), he had ventured to prophesy as follows:—"Before the close of this century, either the Parliament will reform itself from within, or be reformed with a vengeance from without."* Since the meetings of 1780, the question had more than ever stirred the public mind, and it continued to be eagerly pressed forward by the delegates of the associated or petitioning counties. It was on Chatham's son that the conduct of it now devolved. On the 7th of May, Mr. Pitt, seconded by Alderman Sawbridge, brought it forward in the House of Commons. To reconcile, or rather to conceal the wide differences that prevailed as to any definite or specific plan, the motion of Pitt was only—That a Committee be appointed to inquire into the present state of

* See a note to the Parliamentary History, vol. xiv. p. 100.

the Representatives of the Commons, and to report what steps in their opinion it may be proper to take thereupon.

On this question, the new Ministers were very much at variance. Fox, for example, was its steady friend. The opinion of the Duke of Richmond in its favour were not only eager, but extreme. On the other hand, Lord John Cavendish, as one of his colleagues tells us, was "diffident of the effect of any Parliamentary 'Reform.' It was caution only that withheld the open expression of the Prime Minister's repugnance." The effect of this strong disinclination in several of the Rockinghams was apparent on the 7th of May. Pitt urged his motion with great ability; it was supported not less ably by Sheridan and Fox; but Dundas opposed it in a speech abounding both with argument and wit; Burke and Thomas Townshend absented themselves; and the proposal for a Committee was negatived by twenty votes, the numbers being 161 to 141.

It was with some diffidence that Fox had prevailed on Burke to keep aloof on this occasion. But on a later day, when the general question was again incidentally discussed, the member for Malton could no longer be restrained. Then, as Sheridan relates it in a secret letter to Fitzpatrick, "Burke acquitted himself with the 'most magnanimous indiscretion, attacked William Pitt 'in a scream of passion, and swore Parliament was and 'always had been precisely what it ought to be, and that 'all people who thought of reforming it wanted to over-'turn the Constitution.'"

The debate in which Burke thus unburthened himself, was on Alderman Sawbridge moving to shorten the duration of Parliaments, when a large majority declared against that measure. Another Bill to prevent bribery and expenses at Elections, which was introduced by Lord Mahon and supported by Mr. Pitt, seemed at first to meet with more success. It passed the Second Reading, but

* On Lord Rockingham and Lord John Cavendish in 1782 and 1783, see the *Memoirs* by Lord Albemarle, vol. ii. pp. 395 and 400.

† See *Parliamentary History*, 1782. *Memorials of Fox*, by Lord John Russell, vol. i. p. 100.

in the Committee House of its provisions were deemed unduly severe—the candidate being precluded from obtaining the conveyance of the non-resident voters to the poll. Several long debates ensued upon it; but the most stringent of its clauses being negatived, Lord Mahon withdrew the Bill.

All this while the position of Fox as leader had been far from easy to himself. Thus does he describe it in a letter to Fitzpatrick, his most confidential friend: "Our having been beat upon Pitt's motion will, in my opinion, produce many more bad consequences than many people seem to suppose. . . . The very thin attendances which appear on most occasions are very disheartening and sometimes embarrassing to me. Upon the Bill for securing Sir Thomas Rumbold's property we were only 36 to 33. The Attorney and Solicitor General were both against me, and I had the mortification to depend for support upon the Lord Advocate and Jenkinson. . . . I have given you but a small part of my ill humour when I have confined myself to the House of Commons. The House of Lords has been the most shameful scene you can imagine. The Duke of Richmond, in points where he was clearly right, has been deserted by every Minister present more than once."*

But all these Parliamentary proceedings or Cabinet perplexities, however important in themselves, could only be deemed subordinate to two main objects of the new administration or of any administration at that time in England: to carry on the war as long as it was necessary, and to conclude a peace as soon as it was possible. As regards the former, little news of any moment came from North America. There, both parties had continued for the most part at gaze, the English merely holding their strong positions, which the Americans were contented with observing. Early in May, Sir Henry Clinton was at length permitted to retire from his arduous command,

* Letter, May 11, 1782. The Bill upon Sir Thomas Rumbold was to restrain him from quitting the kingdom or alienating his property pending the inquiry respecting his conduct at Madras. It was founded on a precedent in the South Sea case. See *Parl. Hist.* vol. xxii. p. 1396, &c.

which was proposed by Sir Guy Carleton in his place. Sir Guy had received most conciliatory orders from the Rockingham Ministry, and attempted, but in vain, to open a separate negotiation with the Congress. He found both parties more than ever inflamed against each other by an unhappy transaction which had taken place only a few weeks before. Here are the particulars. The American loyalists in arms on the side of England had grievous cause throughout the war to complain of the merciless treatment of such among them as fell into their countrymen's hands. Elsewhere I have cited the sanguinary proverb which it seems was in vogue against them. * It so chanced that while the violent death of one of their own number, Philip White, was freshly rankling in their minds, they made prisoner in the Jerseys Joshua Huddy, a Captain in the service of Congress. Provoked by cruel conduct, they were guilty of unjustifiable retaliation. A party of them under Captain Lippencot led out Huddy to the heights of Middletown and there hanged him on a tree, affixing on his breast an inscription which concluded with these words: "We determine to hang man for man while there is a refugee existing; up goes Huddy for Philip White!" † Greatly incensed at this outrage, Sir Henry Clinton ordered Lippencot to be arrested and brought to trial for murder. But this course did not satisfy Washington, who wrote to the English General, insisting that Lippencot should be given up to him for summary punishment. When he found that this demand was not complied with, Washington next announced, that he should select one of the British prisoners as an object of retaliation. He cast lots for a victim, and the lot fell upon Captain Asgill, one of the York-town captives, a young officer only nineteen years of age. In vain did first Sir Henry and then Sir Guy express their utter abhorrence of the act of Lippencot, and their firm determination to exert the laws against him. The difficulty was further increased upon Lippencot's trial, when it was found that he could not, in strict justice, be con-

* See vol. ii. p. 288.

† The story of this case is given in Ramsay's Hist. vol. ii. p. 288. Consult also the account of Mr. Sparks, in his Life of Washington, p. 378.

tried, as not nearly answerable for his crime. It appeared that he had only acted in conformity with what he believed to be his orders from the Board of Associated Loyalists sitting at New York, with the son of Franklin as their President. The most earnest representations were made in favour of Asgill; but his case remained in suspense for several months. Even after Washington's more noble nature had relented, the majority of Congress were obdurate; and while he inclined to mercy they were still sternly determined upon vengeance. But the mother of Asgill having written a pathetic appeal to the French Ministry wrought upon the kindly feelings of the King and Queen, and obtained a letter from the Comte de Vergennes to Washington, dated the 29th of July, and soliciting the young officer's release. Besides the plea of pity, De Vergennes put forward in some slight degree a claim of right. "Captain Asgill," he wrote, "is doubtless your prisoner, but he is among those whom the arms of the King, my master, contributed to put into your hands at York-town." He also thought it necessary to guard against another possible Resolution of the Congress. "In seeking to deliver Mr. Asgill from the fate which threatens him, I am far from engaging you to select another victim; the pardon to be perfectly satisfactory must be entire." The progress of the negotiations for peace happily concurred to the same end with these compassionate entreaties, and at last on the 7th of November the Congress came to a vote that Captain Asgill should be set free.*

It was not merely in this case that the patience of Washington was tried by the slowness and unwillingness of Congress. His correspondence at that period teems with complaints, — unheeded complaints, — of his necessities. No measures were taken to maintain the war, if necessary, for another year, or to satisfy the troops, who

* In the Ann. Regist. 1783, p. 241, will be found the letters of Lady Asgill and of the Comte de Vergennes. The former might well indeed have melted a much harder nature than Maria Antoinette's. "My husband (Sir Charles) given over by his physicians a few hours before the news arrived, and not in a state to be informed of the misfortune; my daughter seized with a fever and delirium, raving about her brother; &c."

murmured and sometimes rebelled from their long arrears of pay. In the manner they were left almost destitute both of clothing and food. It is hard to say, whether the southern army under General Greene, or the northern under General Washington, endured the most. Thus writes Greene: "For upwards of two months more than one-third of our men were entirely naked, with nothing but a breech-cloth about them, and never came out of their tents; and the rest were as ragged as wolves. Our condition was little better in the article of provision. Our beef was perfect carrion, and even bad as it was we were frequently without any." Thus writes Washington: "It is vain, Sir, to suppose that military men will acquiesce contentedly in bare rations, when those in the civil walks of life, unacquainted with half the hardships they endure, are regularly paid the emoluments of office. Only conceive then the mortification they must suffer, even the General Officers, when they cannot invite a French officer, a visiting friend, or a travelling acquaintance to a better repast than stinking whiskey hot from the still, and not always that, and a bit of beef without vegetables will afford them. . . . I could give anecdotes of patriotism and distress which have scarcely ever been paralleled, never surpassed, in the history of mankind. But you may rely upon it, that the patience and long-sufferance of this army are almost exhausted, and that there never was so great a spirit of discontent as at this instant. It is high time for a peace!"*

So far indeed had the spirit of discontent spread in the American army, that it was aimed not only at the Congress but at the Republican form of government itself. In the month of May, 1782, Washington received a communication on the part of several of his officers

* The letter of Greene (as given in Gordon's History, vol. iv p. 292) is dated August 13, and that of Washington to the Secretary at War is dated 2, 1782. Yet the Secretary at War (General Benjamin Mifflin) writing to Dr. Franklin, in the course of this very autumn, speaks of himself entitled to state: "We have now a better army than we have ever had at any time before during the war, better clothed and in high discipline." See Franklin's Works, 412.

desiring to make him chief of the State, and, if possible, with the title of King. But no feeling of ambition could lure that great and good man from the path of duty. He replied to this overture, that he must view it with abhorrence and reprehend it with severity.*

In the West Indies, Sir George Rodney had come back from England and resumed the chief command. But the shafts of calumny still pursued him from home. The party prejudice against him may be forgiven in a landsman like Burke; less readily in that experienced Admiral to whom the naval administration was entrusted. Lord Keppel, whom we have seen so keenly sensitive to any supposed slight or disparagement to himself, appears to have acted with the coldest disdain, with the most unjustifiable severity towards an officer; it may be said without offence, greatly his superior in professional renown. Not only did he decide on recalling Rodney from the post which he so ably filled, but he did so without one expression of kindness or concern; he did so not even in his own hand or name, but in a dry official letter from his Secretary, Mr. Stephens. That letter of revocation bears date the 1st of May. But even before that date, Rodney, by the blessing of Providence, had secured to all ages his country's glory and his own, and turned the Rockingham Ministers, however unwillingly, from his contemptuous recall to his promotion and his praise.†

At this time the Comte de Grasse, flushed with the recent reduction of the greater part of the Leeward Islands, was contemplating the more mighty conquest of Jamaica. He had retired to Port Royal in Martinico to collect and refit his naval force, and to take on board 5,000 troops, with which he intended to effect a junction off St. Domingo with another Spanish armament. So confident were the Spaniards of success in this combined expedition, that General Galvez appointed to command

*. Washington's Writings, vol. viii. pp. 300. and 353.

† The biographer of Rodney (*Life by General Mundy*, vol. ii. p. 331.), and, after him the biographer of Keppel (*Life by the Hon. and Rev. Thomas Keppel*, vol. ii. p. 380.), throw out some surmises that in recalling Rodney Keppel may have acted in obedience to Lord Rockingham, and against his own opinion. But of this also there is no proof, and were it true, it is no excuse.

their share in it was, before he sailed from the Havana, addressed in Council as the "Governor of Jamaica." On the other hand, "I am come"—thus wrote Rodney to the real Governor,—“with a spirit firmly determined to prevent so important a jewel being wrested from the Crown of Great Britain. . . .” “My fleet,” he adds in another letter, “at present consists of thirty-six sail of the line, though several of them are in very bad condition.”* He had set cruisers off Port Royal to watch every movement of the enemy, and transmit it by a chain of frigates. On the 8th of April, the signal was accordingly made that the French—they were thirty-three sail of the line—had unmoored and were proceeding to sea. The British fleet was anchored in St. Lucia, but kept in constant readiness; thus in little more than two hours after the signal was received, all our ships were under weigh, standing towards the enemy with all the sail they could crowd. Sir George Rodney in the *Formidable* was at the head of the main fleet, while a separate division was commanded by Sir Samuel Hood in the *Barfleur*. It was the evident policy of the British chief to anticipate the junction of the French and Spaniards by forcing on a battle, which for the corresponding reason the French desired to postpone. “They kept at an awful distance,” wrote Rodney to his wife. Some foreigner unversed in our common and colloquial phrases might here exclaim that it was the Frenchmen’s distance only that could strike his gallant heart with awe!

On the 9th there ensued a partial and indecisive cannonade, by which, however, two of the enemy’s ships were much damaged, and the rest in some measure delayed. Next night, one more of their ships was crippled by running foul of another, and produced a fresh delay. Thus, on the evening of the 11th, Rodney was enabled to bring up his fleet so close as to render inevitable for the morrow the conflict which he sought; and the night which ensued, was passed on both sides in anxious preparation.

* To Governor Dalling, March 5., and to Lady Rodney, March 9. 1782.

It was at seven in the morning of the 12th of April, that the battle began. There was so little wind, that the six hindmost sail of Hood's division were becalmed and unable to come up until almost the end of the conflict; thus, allowing for three of the French disabled, the number of the ships engaging was exactly equal on each side. Rodney, on this memorable day, was the first, not indeed to invent or to devise, but to put in practice, the bold manœuvre known by the name of "breaking the line." His own ship, the *Formidable*, led the way, nobly supported by the *Namur*, the *Duke*, and the *Canada*. After taking and returning the fire of one half of the French force, under one general blaze and peal of thunder along both lines, the *Formidable* broke through that of the enemy. "In the act of doing so"—thus continues an eye-witness of the scene—"we passed within pistol shot of the *Gloireux* of seventy-four guns, which was so roughly handled that she was shorn of all her masts, bowsprit, and ensign-staff, but with the white flag nailed to the stump of one of her masts, and breathing defiance as it were in her last moments. Thus become a motionless hulk, she presented a spectacle which struck our Admiral's fancy as not unlike the remains of a fallen hero; for being an indefatigable reader of Homer, he exclaimed, that now was to be the contest for the body of Patroclus." In that contest a most important advantage was already gained. For the enemy's fleet, being now, as it were, cut asunder, fell into confusion and could not again be combined. The French, however, still fought on with their usual high spirit and intrepidity; nor did the firing cease till sunset, nearly eleven hours from its first commencement. It was stated to Rodney by persons who had been appointed to watch, that there never was seven minutes' respite during the whole engagement, "which I believe," adds Rodney, "was the severest ever fought at sea." At the close of the day, the English had taken five large ships and sunk another, besides two more which Sir Samuel

* Narrative by Doctor (Sir Gilbert) Blane: *Life of General Mundy*, vol. ii. p. 230. In the *Memoirs of Mrs. Commodore* (vol. i. p. 410.) the mention of Patroclus is transferred to Rodney's Captain and friend, Sir Charles Douglas.

Hood afterwards captured in their retreat. Thronged as were the French vessels with troops, the slaughter on board them was immense. It was computed, perhaps with some exaggeration, that in the two actions of the 9th and 12th together, they had 3000 slain and twice as many wounded; while the loss of the English in all kinds, did not much exceed 900.

In none of the French ships was the loss of men more severe, or the resistance braver, than in the *Ville de Paris*, where De Grasse himself commanded. That great ship, the pride of the French navy, and conspicuous far and near as overtopping all others in its size, seemed, as Rodney might have said, like one of Homer's heroes in the meaner ranks of war. De Grasse continued to fight long after the fortune of the battle was decided. It was only when the *Barfleur*, coming up at last, poured in a fresh broadside, and when, as is alleged, there were but three men left alive and unhurt on the upper deck—De Grasse himself being one of the three—that the *Ville de Paris* struck her flag. “The death of ecstasy”—thus writes a by-stander, Dr. Blane—that penetrated every “British bosom in the triumphant moment of her surrender, is not to be described.” So high, indeed, was the renown of that great ship, that when a King's messenger brought the news of the battle to Plymouth, some French officers who were going home by a cartel from that port, would not believe in this the crowning glory of the conflict, and exclaimed, “Impossible! Not the whole British fleet could take the *Ville de Paris*!”

The Comte de Grasse—the first Commander-in-Chief of the French by land or sea who had been taken in conflict by the English since Marshal Tallard gave up his sword to Marlborough on the field of Blenheim—came on board the *Formidable* as a prisoner on the day after the battle. Conscious of having done his duty, his demeanour was composed and serene. He spoke freely of his own defeat, which he ascribed to the failure of the French Ministers to send him, as they had promised, twelve ships more. From the British chiefs in the West Indies, and afterwards in England, De Grasse received

every token of attention and respect. But at home he was disgraced; nay more, as cannot be recorded without pain, not merely his conduct, but even his courage, was denied.*

"It is odd"—thus on the day after the battle writes Rodney to his wife—"but within two little years I have taken two Spanish, one French, and one Dutch Admiral. Providence does it all, or how should I escape the shot of thirty-three sail of the line, every one of which I believe attacked me? But the Formidable proved herself worthy of her name." Such, combined with terms of tenderest affection to his family, were the first effusions in his triumph of that good and gallant heart. Nor was it, we may add, in the hour of battle only, that his high qualities were conspicuous and decisive; not less admirable was his care in the government and right order of his fleet. To these he desired to apply a principle of gentleness, ill understood in his own age, but better appreciated in ours. "I have long experienced"—here are words from one of his despatches—"that where good discipline prevails, there is seldom occasion for punishment."† " "

To those who love to trace the lesser lights and shades of human character,—and those who do not, will scarce be found thus far among my readers—I shall owe no apology if I venture to record of the conqueror of De Grasse, that even in his busiest hours he could turn some kindly thoughts, not only to his family and friends, but to his dog in England. That dog named Loup, was of the French fox-breed, and so attached to his master, that when the Admiral left home to take the command of his fleet, the faithful animal remained for three days in his chamber, watching his coat and refusing food. The affection was warily returned. On many more than one

* "La funeste journée du 12 Avril, 1782, causa d'un bout de France à l'autre le plus violent désespoir. Des épi-grammes contre le Comte de Grasse circulaient de bouche en bouche. Les femmes portaient alors des croix d'or à la Jean- nette; on en fit d'autres qui furent nommées à la de Grasse; les unes avaient au cœur, les autres n'en avaient pas." (Belle Guerre d'Amérique, etc., avec les notes de Sevelinges, par M. de Mundy.)

† To the Secretary of the Admiralty. *Mundy's Life*, vol. ii. p. 41.

occasion we find Rodney write much as follows to his wife: — "Remember me to my dear girls and my faithful friend Loup; I know you will kiss him for me."*

By the glorious victory of the 12th of April, the blow designed against Jamaica was wholly turned aside. That great prize the Ville de Paris was freighted with thirty-six chests of money, for the pay and subsistence of the troops in the projected expedition. It so chanced, moreover, that the whole train of field artillery and the battering cannon intended for that service were on board the other captured ship. But further still, the French vessels which had escaped from the action, some greatly damaged, had sought shelter in different ports, and could not be reunited for any common object. Rodney himself, after some pursuit, repaired to the island which he had saved from danger, and found himself welcomed with transports of gratitude and joy. Thence, on receiving the order for his recall, he set sail for England.

The two battles of Rodney may be said to close the naval operations of this year, on the European seas. For neither the surprise of the Balaena isle by three Spanish ships sent to attack one of the Hudson Bay settlements by a French vessel, nor yet, on the other hand, the conquest by the English of some forts on the Mosquito shore from the Spaniards, and of some others on the coast of Africa from the Dutch, met with serious resistance, or appear to call for special commemoration. In the middle of May, the intelligence of Rodney's great victory came to England, where it produced the highest exultation. It seemed to bring back to our arms their pristine lustre, and to retrieve most worthily a large amount of loss and ill success. So strong was the tide of gratitude towards the victorious Admiral, as to bear along with it the very Ministers who, not three weeks since, had determined to disgrace him. An English Barony, besides a pension for life, first proposed by Sir Francis Basset, an Opposition member, was bestowed on Rodney, and an Irish Barony on Hood.

* Murray's *Life of Rodney*, note to vol. i. p. 258.; vol. ii. p. 28; &c.

Yet, in the eyes of the nation, the first reward seemed scarcely adequate for such an exploit. "My own ancestor," observed Lord Sandwich, "was for his services made an Earl, and Master of the Wardrobe for three lives; and surely what Sir George Rodney has done no less merits an Earldom, with an annuity of two or three thousand pounds a year to be annexed to it. The last action alone deserved so much."*

But the news from the West Indies did not lessen either the popular anxiety or the Ministerial endeavours for peace. The new Government had resolved to carry through its remaining stages the Bill which the last had framed, giving the King full authority to conclude either a peace of truce with the insurgent Colonies, "any law or Act of Parliament to the contrary in any wise notwithstanding." The measure passed accordingly, though not with any great despatch; it was not brought from the Commons till the 20th of May, it did not receive the Royal assent till the 19th of June. But the first step of Mr. Fox in Foreign Affairs was to attempt a separate negotiation with Holland by the mediation of Russia. In this overture he was not successful, although pursuing it to the furthest limits of the national dignity, or even, as his opponents might allege, beyond them. "The Dutch," said Mr. Pitt in his great speech on the peace next year, "the Dutch were not disarmed by the humiliating language of that gentleman's Ministry."

It is to be observed, that the new Cabinet found, as had also the preceding one, a disposition to mediate in the Courts both of Peter-burg and Vienna. With the former, the original object had been to obtain the cession of Minorea, in return for an active interposition in behalf of England.† Even while that hope was pending, or even after it had ceased through the conquest of that

* Speech in the House of Lords, May 27. 1782. In the report of the Parliamentary History (Vol. XXIII. p. 60.) this passage is omitted. In the Commons, Burke, referring to his old St. Eustatia charges, said finely that, "if there was a bald spot on the head of Rodney, he was willing to cover it with laurels."

† See in the Malmesbury Papers especially Sir James Malmesbury's two despatches of Dec. 24. 1780, and Lord Sturgeson's report of Jan. 20. 1781.

island by France, the Czarina was willing to exert herself, although in vain, to conclude for us a separate treaty with the Dutch. — At Vienna, since the decease of the Empress Queen, in 1780, Prince Kaunitz had been far from friendly in his tone; but he appears to have thought that the importance of Austria would be enhanced by taking a principal part in the negotiations. With this view, on the accession of the new Ministry, he made another offer to mediate, through a document which was concurred in by the Czarina, and which, in diplomatic phrase, was styled *UNE INSINUATION VERBALE*. To both the Imperial Courts, the new Ministers gave a cordial and assenting reply. They also attempted, though without effect, to awaken an interest for peace in the mind of the King of Prussia. But it soon became more and more apparent, that the negotiations made no real progress at any of these three Courts, and that Paris was the place, and Franklin the person, at which and through whom a peace must be achieved.

Immediately before the fall of Lord North's Ministry, and in anticipation of the next year, Dr. Franklin had written to Lord Shelburne with several expressions of his pacific views. On receiving that letter, Lord Shelburne, then Secretary of State, sent to Paris as his agent Mr. Richard Oswald, a London merchant well versed in American affairs. Mr. Oswald was furnished with a few lines of recommendation from Mr. Laurens, then a prisoner on parole in England, while Lord Shelburne, in his own letter, described him as a man "conversant in those negotiations which are most beneficial to mankind," and on that account "preferred to any speculative friends or to any persons of higher rank." Dr. Franklin readily conferred with Mr. Oswald, and put into his hands a paper drawn up by himself, suggesting, that in order to produce a thorough reconciliation, and to prevent any future war on the North American Continent, England should not only acknowledge the Thirteen United States, but cede to them also the province of Canada. * Such a project, though it might

* This was no scheme of Dr. Franklin; we find him so early as October, 1775, mentioning it in a letter to Mr. Hartley (Works, vol.

prevail on the more simple mind of Mr. Oswald, was not likely to find favour in the eyes of any British statesman. Mr. Oswald, however, undertook to return with it to England, and to lay it before his chief; Dr. Franklin at his departure expressing an earnest hope, that all future communications to himself might pass through the same hands.

Under these circumstances, the Cabinet determined that Mr. Oswald should go back to France, and carry on the treaty with Franklin, though by no means with such concessions as the American philosopher desired. It was laid down as the basis of this negotiation, that the Independence of the United States should be admitted, and that other matters should be restored as they stood at the Peace of 1763. It was also resolved to send another agent to Paris, to treat, on the same basis, with M. de Vergennes; and for this second mission Fox selected his friend Mr. Thomas Grenville.*

It might have been foreseen that, with negotiations so concurrent, the two negotiators must inevitably clash. The letters of Mr. Grenville to Fox were filled with complaints of Mr. Oswald's interposition, and of Lord Shelburne's secret views; and thus was the keenest jealousy fomented between both the holders of the Seals. Yet it does not follow that either Shelburne or Fox was to be blamed. The censure so freely cast on the one or on the other of them may, with far greater justice, be transferred to the system under which they acted. At that time, the old and perplexing division of the Northern and Southern departments, which had prevailed through

viii. p. 301.) Lord Shelburne, wholly disapproved it; as, notwithstanding some vague surmises to the contrary, is plain from his own "Memorandum" of Instruction to Mr. Oswald, April 28. 1782. The original MS. of these is preserved among the papers at Lansdowne House, and they were first made public by a very accurate and able expositor of this whole transaction, in the *Edinburgh Review*, No. cci. p. 35., January 1854.

* The correspondence of Mr. Thomas Grenville at Paris is given fully in the "Courts and Cabinets of George III." (vol. i. pp. 37—64.) as published in 1853 by the Duke of Buckingham. In Franklin's Works (vol. ix. pp. 238—351., ed. 1844), will be found a clear and excellent Journal of the negotiation, up to the 1st of July, with original letters interspersed.

the earlier portion of the century, was at an end. When the third Secretaryship was abolished, the partition of business between the two remaining Secretaries was made on the same principle as the Home and Foreign Offices of the present day, but with this difference, that the Colonies — and, in the eye of the law, the United States were Colonies still — were added to the Home. Lord Shelburne had been appointed the Home Secretary, and Mr. Fox the Foreign. Thus the negotiation with America was as clearly in Lord Shelburne's province, as those with France, and Spain, and Holland were in Mr. Fox's.

Such was the state of things at Paris, when the news came of our great victory in the West Indies. Mr. Oswald told Dr. Franklin that, as he thought, some of our Ministers were a little too much elated by it; yet they all hastened to declare that it left their desire for peace entirely unchanged. Franklin, on his part, did his best to inspire Comte d'Estaing and other naval officers whom he met at dinner, and found in some degree dejected. By way of encouragement, he told them the observation of the Turkish Bashaw, who was taken with his fleet, by the Venetians at Lepanto — "Ships are like my master's beard; you may cut it, but it will grow again. He has cut off from your Government the Morea, which is like a limb, that you can never recover. And his words," added Franklin, "proved true."

Of still greater significance in this negotiation, was the illness of Lord Rockingham. He was only fifty-two years of age, yet his health had for some time been declining. He suffered from water on the chest, and was now, moreover, attacked by Influenza; a disorder of recent introduction, but at that period widely prevalent in London.* On the last — and indeed as it would seem the only — occasion during his own Ministry when Lord Rockingham took any part in the House of Lords — this

* The first appearance of Influenza in London is described by Lord Chesterfield in a letter to his Son (July 9. 1767). In June 1782, Lady Bute writes to her husband:—"This disorder has been so universal, that the public places have been obliged to be deserted."

was on the 3rd of June—he declared himself so ill “that at times he was not in possession of himself.” Still his friends were under no apprehensions of his danger, till near the end of the month, when he grew much worse, and on the 1st of July he expired.

On the day preceding his decease, the Cabinet having met without him, Fox pressed his colleagues with much eagerness, and for the second time, that in the negotiations at Paris the Independence of America might freely and at once be conceded, even without a treaty for a peace. But the majority of the Cabinet were for a treaty accompanying the surrender of the claim, though perfectly willing that independence should, in the first instance, be allowed as the basis to treat on. This decision not coming up to Fox’s views, he declared, with many expressions of regret, that his part was taken to quit his office, and that he held it on for the present solely in consideration of Lord Rockingham’s illness.* Thus, at the moment of the Prime Minister’s decease, his Government was in truth already in a state of dissolution. It was plain that both the sections composing it, even they could by any means be kept united, would at all events in the choice of his successor be warmly striving for the mastery.

The King cut the knot asunder. Next day, he sent for Lord Shelburne, and offered him the First Lordship of the Treasury; an honour which the Earl saw no reason to decline. But Lord Shelburne accompanied this announcement with such communications to Fox as might, he hoped, make it not unwelcome. Lord Keppel, conversing with the Duke of Grafton, only a few days afterwards, “acknowledged that the share of power offered “by Lord Shelburne was all that Mr. Fox could desire, “to assist his management of the House of Commons, “and was equal to anything that could in justice be requested, or with propriety granted.” But the great orator was not to be so appeased. He held a meeting with Lord John Cavendish and a few more of his close friends, at which it was agreed to recommend the Duke of Portland to His Majesty, as the most fitting successor to

* MS. Memoirs of the Duke of Grafton. See the extracts in my Appendix.

Lord Rockingham. Failing to attain this object, Fox and Cavendish resigned, as did also the Duke of Portland at Dublin, and several in the lower ranks of office, more especially Burke and Sheridan.

The conduct of Fox in these transactions is not easily defended. He had broken with the Cabinet majority on a most narrow point, on a mere splitting of hairs, and even on that point Lord Shelburne, it appears, was willing to give way. His other grievances against his brother Secretary, though we may allow them some degree of just foundation, appear greatly overstrained. Such is the case, even with the main one — the imputed failure of Shelburne to make known without delay the secret hints of Franklin on the subject of Canada, since might not those hints be best baffled the more secret and less official they remained? Nay more, considering that America was in the department which Lord Shelburne held, the truth really seems to be that, if one Secretary had cause to complain of the other for encroaching on his official province in the negotiations at Paris, that complaint which was made by Fox, could more justly have proceeded from his colleague. In the next place, had Fox desired to put himself in competition with Shelburne for the Treasury, his pre-eminence, abilities, and his well-won lead in the House of Commons would have warranted his claim. But to run all risks of discord and division by proposing another man whose main merit lay in this, that he was the Lord of Welbeck, and had married a daughter of the House of Devonshire — to put forward in his own stead a mere Ducal puppet whose strings others were to pull — seems a course which, however conformable to the precedents of his party, was, and I trust ever will be, repugnant to the spirit of his nation. How true and just the reflection which, at that crisis, Horace Walpole makes: — “It is very entertaining, that two or three great families should persuade themselves that they have an hereditary and exclusive right of giving us a head without a tongue!” *

But further still, even if it was deemed indispensable that the choice should be confined to men of the highest

rank, one might have been selected far superior to Portland, at least in talent and Parliamentary standing, though destitute of a Cavendish connection. The Duke of Richmond, whom Fox and Burke now concurred in passing by, might have been, at least, according to their own previous estimation, no unworthy chief. *

It is, therefore, no matter of surprise that in the public opinion of the time, Fox was deemed to have no sufficient cause for throwing up his office, and breaking up his party. Many fewer placemen than he had expected joined him in his resignation; many fewer independent Members approved it. Fox was further embarrassed by this difficulty, that in the causes he assigned he could not speak freely of the pending negotiations which were still mysteries of State. "Lord George Cavendish," writes Walpole on the 8th of July, "owned to me that 'there might be reasons that could not be given. I said: — 'My Lord, will worse reasons satisfy the count? try?' — And two days later Walpole adds: "They will receive another blow as sensible as any they have experienced; Sir George Savile disapproves their proud 'retreat.'"

The business of the Session had been already so far advanced, that the House could be prorogued on the 11th after the required explanations. In these Burke took part with a degree of passion which approached to fury; exclaiming that if Lord Shelburne was not already a Catiline or a Borgia in morals, the cause could only be ascribed to his understanding! But here the retort was easy, — since you thought him so why did you consent to serve in the same government? Shelburne himself in the other House spoke with spirit and temper. "It would be strange indeed," he said, "if I had given up 'to the two colleagues who have now thought proper to 'retire all those Constitutional ideas which for seventeen

* We find Burke, who was so ready to put aside the Duke of Richmond in 1782, speak of him in 1780 with the utmost exuberance of eulogy. Coupling him with Savile, he terms them "the first men of their age and their country." (Corresp. vol. ii. p. 368.) In his principles and public views, as detached from party, Burke is always admirable; but whenever we come to persons, it is useless to compare his verdicts with those of posterity.

"years I had imbibed from my master in politics, the late Earl of Chatham. That Noble Earl always declared that the country ought not to be governed by any oligarchical party or family connection; and that if it was to be so governed, the Constitution must of necessity expire. On these principles I have always acted. They are not newly taken up by me for ambitious purposes; and your Lordships may recollect one particular expression that in referring to them I used some time ago. I declared that I would never consent that the King of England should be a King of the Mahrattas; — for among these Mahrattas the custom is, it seems, for a certain number of great lords to elect a Peishwah, who is thus the creature of an aristocracy, and is vested with the plenitude of power, while their King is in fact nothing more than a Royal pageant."

Lord Shelburne's new appointments were quickly made. Thomas Townshend and Lord Grantham became Secretaries of State, while the place of Lord John Cavendish as Chancellor of the Exchequer was much more than filled by Mr. Pitt. Lord Temple went to Ireland as Lord Lieutenant, taking with him as Secretary his brother William, afterwards Lord Glenville. But, on the other hand, Lord Shelburne had great difficulties among his old remaining colleagues. Some who had never belonged to the Rockingham connection were yet perplexed and grieved by the sudden disruption of a party so lately reunited. Lord Camden would only pledge himself to continue for three months, and the Duke of Grafton went into the country in no contented mood. Of the Rockinghams, Lord Keppel especially had been most reluctant to separate from Fox, but could not conscientiously, he thought, desert the naval service in the midst of the campaign.

Our naval service was indeed once again in a perilous strait. The French Admiral De Guichen had formed a junction at Cadiz with the Spanish fleet under Don Luis de Cordoba; and their united force, amounting to twenty-four of the line, approached the British Channel, carrying on their way eighteen merchant-men of the only vessels of the Quebec trade. Just fears were felt

the safety of the convoys then on their return from both the East Indies and the West. At a Cabinet dinner given by the Duke of Grafton, "nothing," he declares, "could exceed the anxiety and uneasiness of both Lord Keppel and General Conway on this state of things, though they declared that their consolation was great when they saw the spirit everywhere which brought forward so great a naval force infinitely sooner than it could have been expected." Early in July Lord Howe, who had just performed another important service by confining the Dutch to their harbours, was directed to issue forth from Portsmouth against the combined fleet. He had no more at his first departure than twelve sail of the line, but aid was sent out to him as soon as possible in single ships; and the Ministry placed a well-founded reliance on his judgment and skill. So effectually indeed did he exert these qualities, that while he restrained the enemy from bringing his inferior force to a general engagement, he protected from them the arrival of the Jamaica convoy under Sir Peter Parker, and compelled them (the Spanish ships, moreover, being as usual ill-provided and unready) to steer back to the southward with all their objects unachieved.

Lord Howe had no sooner come back from this successful cruise, than with equal spirit he pressed the re-equipment of his fleet for another expedition in aid of Gibraltar. But the return of our ships to Portsmouth, joyful as at first it seemed, was dashed by a grievous disaster which, though occurring in a peaceful harbour, equalled the worst calamities of war. The *Royal George*, of 108 guns, commanded by the gallant Admiral Kempenfeldt, was deemed the first ship in the British navy. It had borne a conspicuous part in the celebrated action of Lord Hawke on the coasts of Brittany, and since that time had been repeatedly the flag-ship of nearly all our great commanders. In order to stop a slight leak previous to a new expedition, it became necessary to lay this vessel slightly on her side. But so little was anticipated from the operation, that the Admiral with his officers and men remained on board. No more, as is usually the case on coming into port, the ship was crowded with people from the shore, and many women

and children; and the number of the women only has been computed at three hundred. Such was the state of things at ten o'clock in the morning of the 29th of August, the Admiral writing in his cabin and most of the people between decks, and it is supposed that the carpenters in their eagerness may have inclined the ship a little more than they were ordered, or than the commanders knew, when a sudden squall of wind arising threw the ship fatally upon her side, and her gun-ports being open she almost instantly filled with water and went down. A victualler which lay alongside was swallowed up in the whirlpool which the plunge of so vast a body caused; and several small craft, though at some distance, were in the most imminent danger. About three hundred, chiefly sailors, were able to save themselves by swimming and the aid of boats, but the persons that perished — men, women, and children — though they could not be accurately reckoned, amounted, it is thought, almost to a thousand. Of these no one was more deeply and more deservedly lamented than Admiral Kempenfeldt himself. He was held both abroad and at home to be one of the best naval officers of his time; the son of a Swedish gentleman, who coming early into the English service generously followed the ruined fortunes of his master, James the Second, but who after the death of that monarch was recalled by Queen Anne, and who has been portrayed by Addison in his excellent sketch of Captain Sentry.*

Of a similar kind, and at nearly the same period, was the disaster that befell the best of Rodney's prizes. They were on their way to England manned by English crews, when, shattered as they were already, a violent tempest assailed them, and they foundered at sea. Thus did we lose the much-desired sight of the noblest sign of our late successes, our great maritime trophy, the *Ville de Paris*. Yet the public concern at this mischance did not impair the burst of gratitude and joy with which Rodney was welcomed on his own return. Such enthusiasm, it is true, is scarce to be expected, was by no means confined to the rich and powerful. Thus Rodney having arrived at the

Buck Tavern, Bristol, and being sumptuously entertained with his retinue, called next morning for his bill. "Your Lordship forgets that you paid it beforehand, on the 12th of April,"—was the answer of the worthy landlord.*

On the 11th of September, Lord Howe having repaired his ships and increased them by divers reinforcements to thirty-four of the line, set sail for the relief of Gibraltar. During upwards of three years already had the rock-fortress been blockaded or besieged. In the summer of 1779, on the declaration of war with Spain, the Spaniards had sent out a squadron to intercept the supplies by sea, and had formed a camp at San Roque for their attack by land. But the time was long past when, as in 1704, the place might be reduced in a single day. Now the works were strong; the garrison was vigilant and numerous, exceeding 5,000 men; and approaches could only be made by a long and narrow strip of sand—the "Neutral Ground"—stretching from the foot of the almost perpendicular rock to the less towering heights that circle the bay of Algesiras. The Governor General Elliot was a gallant veteran, who, like the Duke of Wellington at a later period, had received his education at a Military Academy in France. Ever resolute and ever wary, and prevailing by example as much as by command, he combined throughout the siege the spirit to strike a blow at any weak point of the assailants, with a vigilant forethought extending even to the minutest measures of defence. For example, the first month of the investment did not pass away without an order that henceforth, contrary to the usual practice, the troops should mount guard with their hair unpowdered,—an order which might be deemed trifling at the time, but which afterwards proved of great value in husbanding the stores.

Before the close of the year, as Elliot had anticipated, the garrison, and still more the inhabitants, were reduced to great distresses for provision. Thistles, dandelions, and wild leeks were for some time the daily nourishment of numbers. But in January 1782, they were relieved by the arrival of Sir George Rodney and his fleet over

* Life by Mundy, vol. i. p. 100.

Don Juan de Langara. Don Juan himself was brought a prisoner into the bay of Gibraltar, and conducted to lodgings in the town. One day, as it is recorded, the captive Spaniard went out in a boat to visit Admiral Digby, in whose ship was serving one of the young Princes — the same who, in after years became King William the Fourth. When Don Juan de Langara first came on board, he was presented in due form to the English Prince. But when the conference between the chiefs had closed, and it was intimated that Don Juan desired to return, His Royal Highness appeared in his character of midshipman, and standing before the two Admirals as they sat, announced in the respectful tone becoming an inferior, that the boat was ready. The Spaniard, surprised at seeing the son of a monarch acting as a petty officer, immediately exclaimed: "Well does England deserve her superiority at sea when the humblest stations in her navy are filled by Princes of the Blood!"

On the departure of Rodney and his squadron, the Spaniards resumed their blockade, and in the course of a few months again reduced the garrison to straits of various kinds. The English were, however, relieved from time to time by the opportune arrival of some small trading vessels which contrived to elude the enemy's cruisers. Thus, in May, there came in a Moorish sloop from Malaga, freighted with butter, raisins, and leather. So scarce had the last of these become at Gibraltar, that several of the officers, and most of the men, had been obliged to wear shoes made of canvass with soles of spun yarn. But in the autumn, they lost the prospect of any further Moorish supplies. The gold of Spain wrought so far with the Emperor of Morocco, that he prohibited the commerce with us in the strongest terms, even banishing Mr. Logie the Consul, and all other English, from Tangiers. The prices of provisions at Gibraltar rose in consequence to an extravagant height. A goose

* Some doubts having been expressed as to the truth of this story, as related in the *History of the Siege of Gibraltar* (ch. iii.), it was referred to King George the Fourth. In reply, a letter from Sir Herbert Taylor, written in the name of the Emperor's command, and dated March 24, 1835, declared that the story was correctly stated in every respect.

and for 11. 10s., a turkey for 20. 6s., and a pound of bread crumbs for ten pence or a shilling. The poor suffered, and yet more the poor people, suffered great distress, in many cases aggravated by the horrors of the scurvy. Meanwhile the enemy made several attacks by means of fire-ships and gun-boats, besides the fire from their lines; all these, however, were bravely encountered and successfully repelled. At length, in April, 1781, after many months of grievous scarcity, when the troops had been reduced to well nigh the lowest rations, and when many a heavy heart among them was turning towards home, there came to them once more the joyful hour of relief from England. They beheld with delight from their ramparts, one morning as the mist slowly rolled away, the flag ship of Admiral Darby steer into their bay, followed by several other men of war and by his convoy, consisting of near a hundred vessels laden with provisions and supplies.

But their delight was not of long duration. The safe arrival of this second convoy convinced the Spaniards that they should never succeed in reducing the garrison by famine; and they had determined, if any such new succour should be brought, to relinquish the blockade, and commence some more active measures of aggression. Their preparations were already made; and thus, Admiral Darby's fleet was scarcely moored, ere they opened a bombardment from their batteries. That bombardment they continued for many days and weeks, long after the English stores were landed, and the English men of war had sailed away. Besides the damage to the ramparts or the public buildings, great number of the houses in the town were set on fire and consumed, while others yielded to the masses of stone and rubbish which were loosened by the shells, and came toppling from the rock. Thus were laid open to view several secret magazines hoarded up by the lower class of traders, to be dealt out in scanty portions and at exorbitant rates. Roused to fury by the sight, and still suffering from the privations which these supplies, if early disclosed, might have averted, the common men could not be restrained from havoc and plunder. First they drank freely of the wine and spirit stores — an excess which led to much more

excesses still. "A great quantity of liquor," — thus writes one of their officers and the historian of the siege, Captain John Brinkwater, — "was wantonly destroyed, and in some cases incredible profusion prevailed. Among other instances, I recollect seeing a party of soldiers roast a pig by a fire made of cinnamon." There was need of great firmness combined with great temper and discretion in General Elliot to arrest without still worse consequences these dangerous disorders.

It is remarkable, that while by the bombardment so many houses were destroyed, but few lives in comparison were lost. So effectual was the protection afforded by the casemates, that although from the middle of April to the close of May, the enemy, as was computed, fired above 56,000 shot, and 20,000 shells, the garrison had no more than seventy slain. The Governor was indefatigable in repairing the breaches or other damage which the enemy's artillery effected in his walls; and though in most cases he received his fire, he poured it with the greater effect whenever any vulnerable point appeared. To defend himself against the gun-boats, — for these as well as the batteries took part in the bombardment, — he ran down several brigs into frames, mounting each with four or five pieces of heavy cannon.

Discouraged at the slight progress which they made, the enemy slackened in their fire during all the summer months. But in the autumn they were observed to show the utmost activity in drawing nearer their approaches, and completing and extending their already formidable works. Of these and of the guards which manned them Elliot obtained accurate intelligence by means of a deserter, and he formed his plans accordingly. At midnight of the 26th of November, he directed a sudden sally, having kept his purpose a profound secret till after sunset the same evening. The body of troops sent forth amounted to 2,000 men, commanded by Brigadier Ross, but accompanied by the Governor himself. This bold and well concerted enterprise succeeded beyond the most sanguine expectations. The Spaniards, taken by surprise, fled in confusion, and within an hour, by the industry of the sappers, burst forth from every quarter of

the works. The English regained their own strong hold in safety, first, however, spiking the artillery and laying trains which blew up the magazines of gunpowder, and completed the destruction. So utterly unexpected was this onset, that there was found in the quarters of the Spanish commanding officer a report ready written, to be sent to his General next morning, and stating that "nothing extraordinary has occurred,"—a report in which, as Captain Drinkwater says drily, it must be acknowledged that the Spaniard had been a little premature.

For several days the Spaniards appeared to be almost stupified by their surprise. Their batteries continued to burn, and they made no attempt to quench the flames. But in December, they slowly applied themselves to repair the smoking ruins, and their bombardment was resumed, though by no means with the same vigour as before. Early in 1782, they were cheered by the news that Minorca had yielded to the Duke de Crillon; and still more were their spirits raised when they saw De Crillon himself appear among them, and assume the chief command. He was followed by a large body of his victorious troops; and the total force, French and Spanish, now combining against a barren rock, amounted to full 33,000 men, with 170 heavy pieces of artillery. On the other hand, the garrison had been enabled, by means of succours from England, to repair, and more than repair, their recent losses. With eighty large cannon on their walls, they were now, including a marine brigade, upwards of 7,000 strong; for the most part well inured to privation and fatigue, and sharing in the resolute determination of their chief to maintain, at all hazards their post for Old England and the King. The eyes of all Europe, it may be said, were turned to this memorable siege. A nephew of the Corsican General Paoli, with some sixty volunteers, joined the ranks of the garrison; while from Paris, two Princes of the Blood, the Comte d'Artois, and the Duke de Bourbon, set forth to join in the attack. King Charles of Spain, though usually sedate, nay even phlegmatic in his temper, had grown so eager for the capture of this fortress, that his first question in the morning rose

was always, "Is it taken?" and on being answered in the negative, he never failed to add: "It soon will be!"

The arrival of the French princes in the camp before Gibraltar was marked by an exchange of courtesies, honourable alike to both sides. On passing through Madrid, the Comte d'Artois had taken charge of a mail for the garrison, and on reaching the camp, transmitted the letters by a flag of truce. The Duke de Crillon, by the same occasion, sent over a present of fruit, game, and vegetables for the Governor's own table, promising further supply, and desiring to know which kind he liked best. The reply of General Elliot might well be taken for a model in such communications. He acknowledged his enemy's present in most grateful terms, but owned that in accepting it he had broken through his resolution that he would never, so long as the war continued, receive any provisions for his private use. "I confess," he added, "I make it a point of honour to partake both of plenty and scarcity in common with the lowest of my brave fellow-soldiers. This furnishes me with an excuse for the liberty I now take of entreating your Excellency not to heap on me any more favours of this kind."†

De Crillon, on taking the command, had seen little prospect of prevailing on the land side any better than those who had gone before him. But he fixed his hopes on some floating batteries of new invention to be constructed in the neighbouring port of Algeiras, by the Chevalier D'Arçon, a French engineer of considerable reputation. These batteries, said D'Arçon, who had first contrived them, would be both impregnable and incombustible; wholly bomb-proof at the top, and fortified on the larboard side with great timbers, to the thickness of six or seven feet, bolted with wood-work and covered with raw hides. They were to carry guns of heavy metal, and to be moored by iron chains within half gun-shot of the walls. There it was hoped, that silencing

* General Elliot's *Kings of Spain*, vol. v. p. 121.

† Letter of De Crillon, August 19. 1782, and the Governor's reply the next day. It appears from De Crillon's letter, that the Duke at this time lived entirely upon vegetables.

the English fire, and throwing forward mantelets to cover to the shore bodies of French troops, their assault, combined with another on the land defences, and covered by a fleet of men of war, could not fail to carry the place by storm.

For several months did the port of Algeiras resound with the stir and din of this great armament. Ten large ships were cut down as bases of the floating batteries; 200,000 cubic feet of timber were assigned for their construction; and they were mounted with 142 pieces of artillery, exclusive of those on the land side. Yet formidable as might seem such equipments, daily going on before his eyes, the Governor was in no degree dispirited. He continued with unremitting energy all his preparations for defence, placing especial hope in the system of red-hot balls, which were first devised and recommended by his Lieutenant-Governor, Boyd. To prepare them in sufficient numbers, there was a large distribution of furnaces and grates throughout the English troops. And so familiar did our soldiers grow, as was wished, with these new implements of death, that, in speaking of them to each other, their common phrase was "the roasted potatoes."

Early in September the preparations of the French and Spaniards were almost completed, and in the second week their united fleet, so lately threatening the British Channel, sailed into Algeiras bay. It was thought desirable to proceed at once to the grand attack, so as to anticipate the arrival of Lord Howe. On the morning of the 13th, accordingly, the signal was given; and while from all the lines on shore was maintained the tremendous fire which they had opened for some days, the ten floating batteries from Algeiras bore down in admirable order for their appointed stations. Before ten o'clock they were anchored at regular distances within six hundred yards of the English works. Then commenced a cannonade on both sides so fierce, so incessant, and from such a number of pieces of artillery, as it is alleged had never been seen since the discovery of gunpowder. During many hours the attack and defence were steadily maintained; no superiority being seen on either side. The English fire was unrelenting,

but, on the other hand, it could by no means protect against the heavy and strong-built sea-towers. The heaviest shells rebounded from their tops; the red-hot balls seemed to make no impression on their sides; or, if by these last a momentary spark was kindled, it was at once subdued by the water-engines which they had on board. At length in the afternoon the discharges of their ordnance visibly slackened; and it became apparent that several of the last red-hot balls which had pierced their sides could not be extinguished. Before midnight the *Talla Piedra*, the strongest of the battering vessels, and the flag-ship, the *Pastora*, by her side, were in full flames, by the light of which the artillery of the garrison could resume its volleys and direct them with the surest aim. "The rock and neighbouring objects," says an eye-witness, "were highly illuminated, forming with the constant flashes of our cannon a variegated scene of sublimity and terror." Six more of the battering ships caught fire, and the question to the French and Spaniards upon them was no longer of victory or conquest, but of life. Diurnal shrieks were heard in the intervals of firing from the poor wretches who expired in the flames or in the waves: and numbers more were seen as they faintly clung to the sides of the burning vessels or floated on pieces of timber from the wrecks. More than sixteen hundred of the enemy are computed to have perished. Much greater still would have been the havoc, but for the humanity of our countrymen—above all, of Captain Curtis with the sailors of the marine brigade, who no sooner saw the victory decided than they strained every nerve to save the vanquished. By their exertions between three and four hundred men were brought to shore. Eight of the floating batteries were already consuming or consumed; it was hoped to preserve the two that remained as trophies, but unexpectedly the one burst into flames and blew up, and it was deemed requisite after a moment to burn the other. Thus did the morrow's sun behold those vast sea-towers which so lately boasted the waves in all their pride, and which, with life and motion, shine only upon shattered and stranded fragments from the wrecks. Thus did the *Colossus of Hercules*, so conspicuous in

emblems on the device of the Emperor Charles the Fifth, with their ancient motto, *NEO PLUS ULTRA*; and borne by him upon his banners in the wars against King Francis the First, now in British hands baffle and beat back all the endeavours of the heirs of Charles the Fifth and Francis the First combined!

The Chevalier d'Arcon, the contriver of the whole design, so signally defeated, had been on board the *Talla Piedra* till past midnight and wrote to the French ambassador in the first hours of his anguish: "I have burnt the temple of Ephesus, every thing is gone, and through my fault! What comforts me under my calamity is, that the honour of the two Kings remains untarnished." Honour and I had not been lost, either by those King or by their subjects. Honour never can be lost where bravery is shown. But against such valiant and honourable foemen how nobly had England prevailed! The year had been commenced by French and Spaniards with the confident hope of profiting by our last reverses in North America, and wresting from us both Jamaica and Gibraltar. Both attempts were made accordingly with preparation, with skill, with courage but with what issue? Against the one England had stretched forth her sword, against the other, her shield, against the one there was Rodney's bold attack; against the other Elliot's resolute resistance!

Early in October Lord Howe entered the Straights in line of battle with his ships of war. The combined fleet in the bay, though superior in numbers, did not venture to engage him and Lord Howe landed without hindrance at Gibraltar both a reinforcement of men and a supply of provisions and stores. The siege, however, was continued in name at least until the February following, when the news of peace arrived. Meanwhile in England there was the unanimous desire to do honour to the gallant men who had so successfully maintained her name. The thanks of Parliament were voted to the officers and privates of the garrison. General Elliot received the Order of the Bath, with which he was invested by commission upon the ramparts of the *King's Bastion*, in sight of the works which his prowess had preserved; and on his return to England in 1763, an old veteran,

then seventy ~~thousand~~ ^{thousand} of ~~age~~ ^{age}, was raised to the peerage as Lord Heathfield, of Gibraltar.*

At Paris, the negotiations had been much impeded by the resignation of Mr. Fox, and the return of Mr. Greenville. These events had in many minds cast a shade of doubt over the true intentions of the British Government. Lord Shelburne, however, renewed the most pacific assurances, sending to Paris in the place of Mr. Greenville, and conjointly with Mr. Oswald, Mr. Alleyne Fitzherbert, well known in after years as Lord St. Helen's. These gentlemen acted in amity and concert with each other, although, strictly speaking, negotiation with America, was, as before, the province of Mr. Oswald, and negotiation with the European Powers the province of Mr. Fitzherbert. Dr. Franklin, on the other hand, had associated with him three other American Commissioners, arriving in succession, first Mr. Jay, from Spain, then Mr. Adams, from Holland, and, finally, Mr. Laurens, from London.

It became, ere long, apparent to the British agents, that the Courts of France and Spain were by no means earnest or sincere in the view of an immediate close to the war. With the hope of not losing Gibraltar, or of otherwise depressing England, they put forward at this time either malimposed pretensions, or vague and ambiguous words. It therefore became an object of great importance to negotiate, if possible, a separate pacification with America. At first sight, there appeared almost insuperable difficulties in the way of such a scheme. The treaty of alliance of February 1778, between France and the United States, stipulated in the most positive terms, that neither party should conclude a peace or truce with England unless with the consent of

* The particulars of this story are best learnt from the Journal of one of the officers serving in the garrison Captain John Drinkwater, whose excellent narrative has been often reprinted, and is justly esteemed. See the French and Spanish views of the same transactions, and many others, in the *Apology of Florida Blanca*, printed in *Geographical Magazine* (vol. v pp 242—278.), and the *Voyage en Espagne* (vol. iii pp 219—241, ed. 1789). "The Spanish Ambassador General Elliot with a spirit of enthusiasm" writes from Pamplona, in April 1783. See his *Letter*

the other party, first obtained. Since that time, the French, far from falling short of their engagement, had gone much beyond it. There was no longer the least foundation for the reproach which Franklin, with his usual felicitous wit, was disposed to urge against them at the outset, as though too sparing of their means.* To say nothing of their despatch of a fleet and army, and besides their annual loans and advances to the United States, they had made, in 1781, a free gift of six millions of livres, and in the spring of 1782, granted another to the same amount.†

On the other hand, however, there was a strong temptation to treat without delay. War, if still waged, would be mainly for French or Spanish objects. It could be made quite clear, that when once the independence of the Americans was fully established and secured, they had no interest any more than England in continuing an unprofitable contest. Moreover, there had sprung up in the minds of the Commissioners at Paris, a strong feeling of distrust and suspicion against all their new allies. That feeling we find most plainly expressed by Mr. Adams in relating his own conversations with Mr. Oswald. "You are afraid," said Mr. Oswald to-day, "of being made the tools of the Powers of Europe." "Indeed I am," said I. "What Powers?" said he. "All of them," said I.‡

But in the minds of the American Commissioners, the distrust against France was more vehement than against any other State. It had grown from no real root; it was derived only from several slight inferences or conjectures; above all, as they stated, from a letter of M. de Marbois, Secretary of the French Legation at Philadel-

* "Au commencement, du séjour de M. le Docteur Franklin à Paris, et à un dîner de beaux esprits, un de ces Messieurs s'adressa de lui dire, — Il faut avouer, Monsieur, que c'est un grand et superbe spectacle que l'Amérique nous offre aujourd'hui. — On, répondit modestement le Docteur de Philadelphie, mais les spectacles ne paient point! — Ils ont payé depuis!" (*Mémoires par Grimm et Diderot*, vol. ii. p. 112., ed. 1813.)

† "This Court has granted us six millions of livres for the present year, but it will fall vastly short of our necessities." (Letter to John Adams, Passy, April 20. 1782.)

‡ This was on the 18th of November, 1782. See the "Diplomatic Correspondence" of the American Revolution, vol. ii. p. 133.

phia — a letter which spoke in disparaging terms of their claim upon the fisheries, and which having been intercepted, was shown by the English negotiators to Franklin and his colleagues. The best American writers of the present day acknowledge that all surmises thence arising were in truth ill-founded; that the conduct of France towards the United States had been marked throughout not only by good faith and honour, but by generosity. And it is very remarkable that long before the letter of M. de Marbois was produced at Paris, — so early as July, 1782, — we find Mr. Oswald write privately to Lord Shelburne, that “the Commissioners of the Colonies have shown a desire to treat and to end with us on a separate footing from the other Powers.”*

The separate negotiation thus arising was delayed, — first, by the severe illness of Dr. Franklin, and next, by some points of form in the commission of Mr. Oswald. When at length the more solid part of the negotiation was commenced, the hints of Franklin for the cession of Canada were quietly dropped, — with the greater ease from their having been transmitted in a confidential form. It is also worthy of note, that Lord Shelburne prevailed in his desire of acknowledging the independence of the States by an article of the treaty, and not, as Fox had wished, by a previous declaration. This point, a thing of form merely, not of substance, was far from having the importance which Fox ascribed to it; yet, so far as the two courses are compared, Lord Shelburne's appears the more natural and just in theory, and certainly in practice bore no evil fruit.

The real difficulties of this treaty turned first upon the fishing grounds which the English were not willing to yield; but on which the Americans stood firm; and secondly, upon the question of the Loyalists or Tories. It

* The public letters of Mr. Oswald since the change of Ministry were sent in due course to Mr. Secretary Townshend. Those to Lord Shelburne (besides the copies of some now with the rest at the Foreign Office) are preserved at Lansdowne House; but their main sources have been, though Lord Lansdowne's permission, printed in the *Notes*, as notes to Franklin's Correspondence. See especially p. 495. In Franklin's Life (p. 495.), Mr. Sparks is most commendable in owning the perfect good faith of the

was, as it ought to be, a main object with the British Government to obtain, if possible, some restitution to the men who, in punishment for their continued allegiance to the King, had found their property confiscated and their persons banished. But from the first, Dr. Franklin held out no hopes of any satisfaction on this point. The Commissioners, he said, had no such power, nor had even the Congress. They were willing that the Congress should, with certain modification, recommend those indemnities to the several States; and as one of the negotiators from England tells us, they to the last "continued to assert that the recommendation of the Congress would have 'all the effect we proposed.'"^{*} The British diplomatists persevered in their original demand, and at one time there seemed a probability that the negotiations might break off chiefly on this ground. Twice was Mr. Strachey, the Under Secretary of State, an able and experienced man, despatched to Paris to aid Mr. Oswald with his counsel and co-operation. But at last, the mind of Franklin, ever ingenious and fertile of resources, devised a counter scheme. He said that he would allow for the losses which the Loyalists had suffered, provided another account were opened of the mischief they had done, as of slaves carried off, or houses burned; new Commissioners to be appointed to strike a balance between the two computations. At this formidable proposal, involving an endless train of discussions and disputes, the negotiators from England finally gave way.

Matters being thus adjusted, the Preliminary or Provisional Articles were signed at Paris on the 30th of November, by the four American Commissioners on the one side, and by Mr. Oswald on the other. These Articles "to be inserted in and to constitute the Treaty of Peace," said the preamble, "but which treaty is not to be concluded until the terms of a Peace shall be agreed upon between Great Britain and France." By this limitation, no truth little better than an empty form, since the Provisional Articles were to be meanwhile binding and effective, the Americans were in hopes to soothe, or at least to soften, the resentment of their French allies. The

^{*} Mr. Strachey to Secretary Townshend, November 1782.

• first Article, acknowledged in the fullest terms the independence of the United States. The second fixed their boundaries advantageously for them. The third gave their people the right to take fish on all the banks of Newfoundland, but not to dry or cure them on any of the King's settled dominions in America. By the fourth and fifth and sixth Articles, it was agreed that the Congress should earnestly recommend to the several legislatures to provide for the restitution of all estates belonging to real British subjects who had not borne arms against them. All other persons were to be at liberty to go to any of the provinces and remain there for twelve months, to wind up their affairs, the Congress also recommending the restitution of their confiscated property, on their repayment of the sums for which it had been sold. No impediment was to be put in the way of recovering *BONÂ FIDE* debts; no further prosecutions were to be commenced, no further confiscations made. It was likewise stipulated in the seventh and eighth Articles, that the English should at once withdraw their fleets and armies from every port or place which they still possessed within the limits of the United States; and that the navigation of the Mississippi, from its source to the ocean, should be for ever free and open to both parties. To these provisions was added a secret article respecting the limits of West Florida, if, at the close of the war it should be, or be put, in possession of England.

It is not to be supposed, that the French Government could view with unconcern the studied secrecy of this negotiation. The appearances of amity were indeed, for the sake of mutual interest, kept up on either side. But thus did the Comte de Vergennes unbosom himself in writing to the French Minister at Philadelphia — “You will surely be gratified as well as myself with the very extensive advantages which our allies the Americans are to receive from the peace; but you certainly will not be less surprised than I have been at the conduct of the Commissioners. . . . They have cautiously kept themselves at a distance from me. Whenever I have been desirous to see any one of them, and inquire of them respecting the progress of the negotiation, they have always clothed their speech in general

"... giving me to understand that it did not go forward, and that they had no confidence in the sincerity of the British Ministry. Judge of my surprise when, on the 30th of November, Dr. Franklin informed me that the Articles were signed. The reservation retained on our account does not save the infraction of the promise which we have made to each other not to sign except conjointly. . . . This negotiation is not yet so far advanced in regard to ourselves as that of the United States; not but what the King, if he had shown as little delicacy in his proceedings as the American Commissioners, might have signed Articles with England long before then." *

The meeting of Parliament had been appointed for the 26th of November, but on the near prospect of bringing the peace to a conclusion, it was further prorogued to the 5th of December; the motive being made public by a letter from the Secretary of State to the Lord Mayor. So great was the public excitement at the news that the Funds underwent most violent fluctuations, sometimes to the extent of three per cent. a day, and from fifty-seven, which they had been at first rising at one time to sixty-five. † At this period, the strength of parties in Parliament at least, was described by Gibbon, as follows: "A certain late Secretary of Ireland" (Eden probably) reckons the House of Commons thus: Minister one hundred and forty; Reynard, ninety; Boreas, one hundred and twenty; the rest unknown or uncertain. The last of the three by self or agents talks too much of abstinence, neutrality, moderation. I still think he will discard the game." ‡

It was hoped that the French and Spanish preliminary articles might, like the American, be concluded before the 5th of December. M. de Rayneval, the principal Secretary under M. de Vergennes, came to London, as he

* This letter to M. de la Luzerne is dated December 18, 1782, and printed at full length in Franklin's Works, vol. ix. p. 408. For the American state papers on this subject, see the "Diplomatic Correspondence" of their Revolution as published by Mr. Adams, especially vol. iv. p. 84., vol. x. pp. 129 and 187.

† Letter of Reynolds, in the Life by his Son, vol. i. p. 102.

‡ Letter to Holroyd, October 14. 1782.

had once already, to quicken the negotiations." But the difficulties on the point of Gibraltar proved as yet insuperable, and thus at the meeting of Parliament, only one pacification could be announced. The King, in his opening speech stated, that he had gone the full length of the powers vested in him by the Legislature, and offered to declare the Colonies in North America free and independent States by an article to be inserted in the treaty of peace — to which effect a provisional compact had been signed. And the King went on as follows, in weighty and memorable words: "In thus admitting their separation from the Crown of these kingdoms, I have sacrificed every consideration of my own to the wishes and opinions of my people. I make it my humble and earnest prayer to Almighty God, that Great Britain may not feel the evils which might result from so great a dismemberment of the empire; and that America may be free from the calamities which have formerly proved in the mother country how essential monarchy is to the enjoyment of constitutional liberty. Religion, language, interest, affections may, and I hope will, yet prove a bond of permanent union between the two countries; to this end neither attention nor disposition on my part shall be wanting."

The Provisional Treaty, as recently signed, was not as yet laid before the Houses, but even its general announcement raised attacks upon the Government from the most opposite directions. In the Upper House, Lord Stormont violently censured the irrevocable concession of independence to American Commissioners, acting, he said, — for so ill was he informed of the real facts, — under the guidance and direction of French councils. Lord Shelburne defended himself as usual with eloquence and skill, but on a technical subtlety rather than on clear and broad grounds. The offer of independence, he argued, was not irrevocable, for, if France did not agree to peace, the offer would be withdrawn. In the Commons, Fox, on the contrary, contended that the acknowledgment of independence was the first step in the negotiation. Here, however, he was not supported by the other section out of. Mr. Pitt, in his speech the first evening, observed that he would not look upon the formal final

renunciation of our ancient sovereignty as warranted without making it at least the price of peace. And when, a few days afterwards, Fox moved for copies of such parts of the Provisional Treaty as related to the recognition of American independence, he was followed into the lobby by no more than 46 against 219.

Great intemperance of language was indulged in by the Opposition Whigs. Burke on the Report described the King's Speech as a medley of hypocrisies and nonsense, and Fox added that he detested as much as he despised it. They also took especial pleasure in taunting the Prime Minister with the words used by him in a former year, that whenever the independence of the Colonies was granted, the sun of England would have set. Yet, if more fairly viewed, where lay the inconsistency? Or is there any concession so disastrous but it may at length be wrung from the most honest Minister by the exigency of public affairs? In his first speech, when he succeeded to the Treasury last summer, Lord Shelburne had, as it were, anticipated this attack, by adverting to his own past words, and declaring that the opinion which they stated was unchanged. But he had added, that however great might be the blow to England, he should, far from giving way to despair, endeavour to strain every nerve, and improve every opportunity, to prevent the Court of France from being in a situation to dictate the terms of peace. Thus, he said, although the sun of England would set with the loss of America, it was his resolution to improve the twilight, and prepare for the rising of England's sun again!*

On the 23rd of the same December, the House having adjourned for a month of Christmas Recess, the Government made great exertions that, before they met again, the negotiations with Spain and France might be brought to a successful close. Spain was most eager to regain Gibraltar by treaty, since she could not by force of arms; and France desired to support her in that pretension.

* Speech in the House of Lords, July 16, 1778. The original sunset speech was delivered March 5, 1778. On Jan. 25, 1781, however, Lord Shelburne declared that he had waked from "those dreams of British dominion." See *Parliamentary History*, vol. xix. p. 450, vol. xxi. p. 1035, and vol. xxiii. p. 100.

Lord Shelburne, on his part, was not unwilling to yield the rock-fortress in exchange for the island of Porto Rico, which was deemed by him a satisfactory equivalent, and which might probably be wrung from the Court of Madrid, although its ambassador at Paris had declared in the first instance that both Cuba and Porto Rico must be numbered as among "the limbs of Spain."* In the less importance which Lord Shelburne appears to have attached to Gibraltar as an English possession, he did no more than follow the views of Lord Chatham, Lord Stanhope, and other eminent Ministers of England, since the Peace of Utrecht. But he encountered great difficulties in his own Cabinet. Several of his colleagues, the Duke of Grafton more especially, insisted that Trinidad, at least, should be added to the offers of Spain.† Moreover, the much coveted fortress had become endeared to the English people, since it had been so gallantly defended by their arms. When on the 5th of this month, the second of the Address in the House of Commons, Mr. Henry Bankes, had let fall some hints of the cession, probably by the express desire of Lord Shelburne, Fox had thundered against the bare idea of such a scheme.* With these obstacles, some not wholly expected, full before him, the Prime Minister relinquished all thoughts of an equivalent, and intimated to the Court of Spain that no terms would tempt the British nation to give up Gibraltar. Such was the resentment of King Charles and of his Ministers at this reply, that they spoke of nothing less than an immediate renewal of the war. But finding their French allies disinclined to back them further, and softened in some degree by the offer of East Florida, in addition to the western districts of that province, which their troops had already overrun, they sent in at last a sullen acquiescence. Thus on the 20th of January, Mr. Fitzherbert was enabled to sign, at Versailles, the Preliminaries of Peace with the Comte de Vergennes, the Minister of France, and also with the Comte d'Aranda, the Ambassador from Spain.

* See the speech of Lord Grantham, October 28, 1782. *State Papers*, vol. viii. Appendix.

† See the speech of the Duke of Grafton. See in my Appendix, the extracts from the Debates in Lord Shelburne's Cabinet.

By the treaty with France, the right of that Power to fish off the coast of Newfoundland and on the Gulf of St. Lawrence, was re-established on the same footing as in the treaties of Utrecht and of Paris, but with a clearer definition of the limits and the additional cession from England of the islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon. In the West Indies, England restored St. Lucia and ceded Tobago, gaining back in return Granada, St. Vincent, Dominica, St. Kitt's, Nevis, and Montserrat. In Africa, England yielded the river Senegal with its dependencies and forts, and likewise the island of Goree, retaining the possession of Fort James and of the river Gambia. In India, the French recovered Chandernagore and Pondicherry, as also Mahé and the Comptoir of Surat, with securities for their commerce, and liberty to surround Chandernagore with a ditch for draining the waters. At home, they were gratified with the abrogation of all the articles in the treaty of Utrecht relative to the demolition of Dunkirk.

By the treaty with Spain, King George ceded the island of Minorca and both the Floridas, while King Charles guaranteed to the English the unmolested right of cutting logwood in a district of which the boundaries were to be fixed, and agreed to restore Providence and the Bahama isles. But this last article proved of small account, since, as it chanced, before the final suspension of hostilities the Bahamas were as easily recovered as they had been easily lost.

With the Dutch, a truce only was for the present concluded; but within a few months a treaty was settled on the basis of mutual restitution, excepting the town of Negapatam, which Holland ceded.

Such were the conditions — said Mr. Pitt in his great speech to vindicate them — the conditions — the ruinous conditions forsooth! — to which this country engaged with four powerful states in close alliance, and trusted in all its resources, thought fit to subscribe for the dissolution of that alliance and the immediate attainment of peace. Apart from the party-spirit, the selfish party-spirit, of the day, it might be natural for us, flushed with the recent glories of Elliot and Rodham, to call out for better terms. But they did not say so, and such in

this unequal contest the glories of the body-politic had been tried and strained. They did not know, as Mr. Pitt set forth, that while every ship of war which could be spared was sailing with Lord Howe for the relief of Gibraltar, the Baltic fleet, almost as valuable as Gibraltar itself, since it contained all the materials for future war, was on its way to England wholly unprotected, that twelve Dutch sail of the line had lain in wait to intercept it, and that it passed by them through some almost inexplicable stroke of fortune. They did not know, that exclusive of the annual services the unfunded debt at that time was not less than thirty millions, or that the Ministers had found, on careful inquiry, a force of three thousand men the utmost which could be safely sent from this country on any foreign expedition. With these facts before us, and after such reverses as those at Saratoga and York-town, can it be fairly denied that the terms of the peace, though no doubt unfavourable, were adequate to any just pretensions we might form? Or is there the smallest reason to suppose, that if either Lord North or Mr. Fox had been Prime Minister instead of the Earl of Shelburne, any better conditions could have been obtained? Let it also be remembered, that in the case of the United States and of the island of Minorca, we did no more than concede in form what we had already lost in fact; and that as to Dunkirk, we only removed a prohibition still galling to French pride and no longer needful for our own security. That harbour was first an object of jealousy when vessels were constructed of far inferior draught; and the ablest seamen, as the first Lord Hawke, had judged that no skill or expense would enable it to receive a fleet of the line.

How little such considerations weighed with heated partisans — how soon after the 27th of January, when copies of all three Preliminary Treaties were brought down by Mr. Secretary Townshend, both the party leaders in the Commons, Lord North and Mr. Fox, leagued together against them — how, from a new and strange position, an ill-formed and ricketty government struggled for life — how the King chafed at the domination of the divided, of the Great Whig Houses — and how, at the close of the year, His Majesty was

again set free — are events that I shall leave to another historian, or certainly at least, to another history. It remains for me here to state, that the new administration, earnestly, as was its duty, pursued the conclusion of the definitive treaties. In the place of Mr. Oswald and of Mr. Fitzherbert, each of whom was deemed too much "Lord Shelburne's man," Mr. David Hartley and the Duke of Manchester were despatched to Paris. Between Mr. Hartley and the American Commissioners, articles of commercial intercourse were discussed at some length but without result. No blame whatever should attach to Mr. Fox who directed these negotiations, since, as it appears, he was desirous "to give as much facility to the trade between the two countries as is consistent with preserving the principles of the Act of Navigation."* Yet Lord Shelburne always contended, that these commercial propositions would have thriven better had they been still confided to his care. Certain it is, at least, that in general Lord Shelburne had the larger and the clearer views of commerce. He was a warm and zealous disciple of Adam Smith, while Fox had turned but little thought to questions of political economy, and never so much as read the "Wealth of Nations."†

The commercial propositions failing, the negotiators at length resolved, that the definitive Peace with America should be nothing beyond a transcript of the Provisional Articles. Thus, also, the Duke of Manchester had not been able to effect any material change in the Preliminary Treaties with France and Spain; but it was agreed that, for the sake of compliment, the Emperor of Germany and the Empress of Russia should be named as Mediators. On this footing, the three definitive Treaties with America, France, and Spain were signed; the former at Paris, and the two others at Versailles, but all three

* These are Mr. Fox's own words, in a letter to the King of April 8. 1783. "Memorials," by Lord John Russell, vol. ii. p. 182, a publication, let me here add, of essential value to History.

† This was owned by himself, with his usual ready frankness, to Mr. Charles Butler. See the *Reminiscences of the Duke*, vol. i. p. 176. ed. 1824.

on the same day, the 3rd of September—that anniversary so memorable in the life of Cromwell.*

The cost of this war became a painful yet necessary consideration at its close. In 1774, near eleven millions of the National Debt had been paid off during as many years of peace.† Yet the capital then still amounted to almost 136,000,000*l*. In 1785, after all the floating debts were funded, the National Debt, exclusive of terminable annuities, had grown to upwards of 238,000,000*l*. During the same period, the war expenses of France have been loosely estimated at seventy, of Spain at forty, and of Holland at ten millions sterling.†

It was not till the spring of 1785, that Mr. John Adams,—named by the United States their first Minister at the Court of their former Sovereign—arrived in London, or was presented at St. James's. There, on the 1st of June, attending the King's Levee in due form, he was led by Lord Carmarthen as Secretary of State into the King's Chamber. "I think myself more fortunate than all my fellow-citizens," said Mr. Adams to the King; "in having the distinguished honour to be the first to stand in your Majesty's Royal presence in a diplomatic character; and I shall esteem myself the happiest of men if I can be instrumental in recommending my country more and more to your Majesty's Royal benevolence." "Sir," said George the Third, in answer,—and with that answer the narrative of this great war may most worthily conclude,—"I wish you to believe, and that it may be understood in America, that I have done nothing in the late contest but what I thought myself indispensably bound to do by the duty which I owed to my people. I will be very frank with you. I was the last to consent to the se-

* On the 3rd of September Cromwell gained the victory of Dunbar; a year afterwards he obtained his "crowning mercy" at Worcester; and a few years after, on the same day which he had ever esteemed the most fortunate for him, he died. See the fine stanzas on this subject in the fourth canto of *Childe Harold* (lxxxv. lxxxvi.), with the *note* thereon.

† *Marshall's Annals of Commerce*, vol. iii. p. 408. and vol. iv p. 93. ed. 1800.

separation; but the separation having been made and having become inevitable, I have always said, as I say now, that I would be the first to meet the friendship of the United States as an independent Power.*

* * John Adams to Secretary Jay, June 2. 1785, as printed in the Diplomatic Correspondence, and in Adams's collected Works, vol. viii. p. 255. Mr. Adams adds "The King was indeed much affected, and I confess I was not less so."

CHAPTER LXVII

INDIA.

WHENEVER, in any modern History of England, an attempt has been made to combine, year by year, the transactions in Europe and in India, the result, it may be said without presumption, is seldom satisfactory. Such frequent breaks in the narrative, and changes in the scene, — with so thorough a difference in race and language, in religion, and in laws, — may fulfil the duty of an annalist, but not, as I conceive, the higher aim of an historian. Avoiding that error, as on full reflection I believe it to be, I design in this and the following Chapter, and in a connected series, to pursue the sketch of British India, which in two former Chapters I commenced; and to bring down its tale to that period decisive of its welfare, when, in the autumn of 1783, the Ministry of Fox and North not only judged it right, but found it necessary, to propose, in some or other form, a new measure for the government of our Eastern empire.

The victories of the English in India, during Chatham's first administration, left to them a power great indeed, and nobly won, but as yet ill-administered and insecure. They had struck down their European rivals at Pondicherry, at Chandernagore, and at Chinsura. They had shot high above their titular liege-lords in the Deccan and Bengal. Of Bengal, indeed, they were in truth the masters, since Meer Jaffier, as their tool and instrument, sat enthroned on the Musnud of that province. On the other hand, they had no longer a chief of genius and of energy to guide them. The principal authority, since the departure of Clive, had devolved on Mr. Henry Vansittart, the father of the late Lord Bexley, a man of good intentions, but of moderate capacity. Thus the discipline of the empire was relaxed by their own arms.

Thus their rapine ceased to be checked by a strong hand. Almost every Englishman in Bengal began to look upon speedy enrichment as his right, and upon the subservient natives as his prey.

Nor was it long ere a growing difference sprung up between them and their new Nabob. So early as the autumn of 1760, Meer Jaffier was found to engage in cabals against the Company. Mr. Vansittart and Colonel Caillaud deemed it necessary to advance with a few hundred of their troops to Cossim-Bazar, a suburb of Moorshedabad, beyond the river. They gave in their terms to Meer Jaffier. Meer Jaffier wavered and wrangled. Without further delay, he was surrounded in his palace at the dead of night, compelled to resign the Government, and then, at his own request, permitted to retire to Fort William, under the protection of the British flag; while his son-in-law, Meer Cossim, was in his stead proclaimed the Viceroy of Bengal.*

According to a compact made beforehand with the English, Meer Cossim forthwith yielded to them, as the price of their assistance, both an amount of treasure and an increase of territory. But his temper, which was bold and active, and by no means scrupulous, chafed at these sacrifices. Still less could he brook the oft-repeated acts of insolence and rapine of the GOMASTAHS,—the native factors or agents in the British pay. Ere long, therefore, he took some measures to shake off his subjection. He removed his Court from Moorshedabad to Monghir, two hundred miles further from Calcutta. He increased and disciplined his troops. He imprisoned or disgraced every man of note in his dominions who had ever shown attachment to the English. He began to enforce against the private traders the revenue laws, from which they claimed exemption. Angry disputes arose above all with the numerous English factory at Patna. Mr. Vansittart repaired to Monghir in the hope to avert hostilities. He concluded a treaty, according that

* "The removal of Jaffier was an ill-advised measure. . . . had Clive remained in Bengal, there would probably have been no revolution." (Note by Professor H. H. Wilson in *History*, vol. iii. p. 310, ed. 1840.)

his countrymen should pay the inland duties to the amount of five per cent., and not refusing on that occasion a present to himself of seven Lacs of Rupees from Meer Cossim. But the Council of Calcutta voted the terms dishonourable. As a last effort to avert hostilities, another deputation was sent from Calcutta to Monghir. At its head was Mr. Amyatt, one of the principal members of the Council. Not only, however, did these gentlemen wholly fail in their mission, but while passing the city of Moorshedabad on their way back, they were inhumanly murdered by a body of Cossim's own troops. After such an outrage, peace was no longer possible. Thus, in the summer of 1763, war again commenced, the Council of Calcutta resolving to depose Meer Cossim, and proclaiming the restoration of Meer Jaffier.

The British forces that took the field in this campaign amounted at first to scarcely more than 600 Europeans, and 1,200 Sepoys. With these, however, their commander, Major Adams, obtained rapid and great successes. He drove the enemy from their strong-holds, entered Moorshedabad, gained a battle on the plains of Geriah, and, after a nine days' siege, reduced Monghir. Nothing was left to Meer Cossim but Patna, and even Patna he perceived that he should not be able to maintain. Accordingly, he prepared for flight to the dominions of his powerful neighbour, Sujah Dowlah, the Nabob of Oude. But first, he wreaked his vengeance on the English by an act of savage barbarity, second in its horrors only to those of the Black Hole. His prisoners of the factory at Patna exceeded one hundred and fifty persons. They comprised many peaceful traders, they comprised one infant child. All these the tyrant indiscriminately doomed to death—the Massacre of Patna, as it has ever since been termed. For his purpose Meer Cossim found a congenial instrument in one Sombre, otherwise known as a Frenchman by birth, and a deserter from the European service. This wretch gave his victims a most contemptuous token of their coming doom, by putting in the first place, to seize and carry off all the silver and gold forks, which might have been weapons of defence. Next day, the 5th of October

in the evening, was the time of slaughter. Then the prison-house was surrounded by Sumroo and his band. Then the butchery of the prisoners was begun. It is said that they made all the resistance in their power, by throwing bottles and stones at their murderers.* But, of course, in vain. Some were cut to pieces with sabres, others shot down with musketry, and then barbarously mutilated. In both cases, the mangled limbs were flung into two wells, which were afterwards filled up with stones. Of the whole number of intended victims, only one was spared; a surgeon known to the Nabob, and William Fullarton by name.†

The reduction of Patna by the English, which speedily followed the atrocious act within its walls, completed their conquest of Bengal. Under their auspices, Meer Jaffier was once more proclaimed as Nabob throughout the province. But, meanwhile, the thrusting forth of Meer Cossim — the dispossession by an European force of one of the native Princes — seemed to the latter an act far more atrocious than the Massacre of Patna. It gained favour for the exile at the Court of Oude; and the Court of Oude was then among the most powerful in India. Sujah Dowlah, besides the resources of his own vast province, could wield at his pleasure the authority, slender though it might be, that yet adhered to the Imperial name. The titular Emperor of Delhi, Shah Alum, had taken refuge with him, and had named him his Visier. Shah Alum, in real truth, was an exile and a wanderer, his very capital, Delhi, being held against him by Mahratta invaders, and half laid in ruins by their fury; but amidst every privation, in the eyes of the people he was still the "Great Mogul."

* Scott's Bengal, p. 427., and Thornton's History of India, vol. i. p. 448. But Mr. Thornton appears in error of two days as to the date of this transaction.

† The narrative of Mr. Fullarton, as the sole survivor of the Massacre, and as addressed to the Board at Calcutta, is (for whatever reason) extremely meagre. It is printed in the Report of the East India Committee, 1773, No. 62. On the same letter, dated Nov. 3. 1763, in which he seems disposed to say no narrative at all, I obtained a MS. copy from the India Office, through the kindness of my friend Sir James Mackintosh.

Thus combining, the three princes advanced at the head of an army well provided with artillery, and which numbered 50,000 men. On the other side, the English with their utmost exertions could bring into the field no more than 8,000 Sepoys and 1,200 Europeans. Their commander, Major Adams, having died, his place was filled by Major, afterwards Sir Hector, Munro. But such in their ranks was the state of insubordination, nay, even mutiny, that the new chief found it necessary to make a most severe example of the ringleaders. He began by directing four and twenty native soldiers to be blown from the mouth of cannon. On this occasion, a touching incident occurred. When the orders were first given to tie four of these men to the guns from which they were to be blown, four others of the soldiers stepped forward and demanded the priority of suffering as a right, they said, which belonged to men who had always been first in the post of danger; and the claim thus preferred was allowed. An officer who was an eye-witness of the scene observes: "I belonged on this occasion to a detachment of marines. They were hardened fellows, and some of them had been of the execution-party that shot Admiral Byng; yet they could not refrain from tears at the fate and conduct of these gallant grenadier Sepoys." *

Having thus in some measure, as he hoped, awed the disaffected, Munro led his troops to Buxar, a position above Patna, more than one hundred miles higher up the Ganges. There, in October 1764, he was attacked by the army of Oude. The battle was fierce, but ended in a brilliant victory to the English; the enemy leaving 130 pieces of cannon and 4,000 dead upon the field.

On the day after the battle, Shah Alum, having with some followers made his escape from the army of his own Visier, drew near to the English camp. So long as he had been dependent on the Durbar of Oude, the English had shown little willingness to acknowledge his authority, but no sooner did he join their ranks and appear a ready instrument in their hands than he became to them at once the rightful Sovereign of Hindostan. They con-

* Major Adams, Williams, as cited in Malcolm's Life of Clive, vol. ii.

cluded a treaty with him, he undertaking to yield them certain districts, and they to put him in possession of Allahabad and the other states of the Nabob of Oude.

The battle of Buxar, though so great a victory, did not decide the war. Major Munro failed in two attempts to storm the hill-fort of Chunar on the Ganges, — a fort in which all the treasures of Cossim were thought to be contained, and Sujah Dowlah obtained the aid of Holkar, a powerful Malhatta chief. Nevertheless he sent to sue for peace. But Munro refused all terms, unless both Cossim and Sombre were first given up to punishment. Nor was his purpose changed by the offer of a large sum of money for himself. With a higher spirit than Vansittart he cried: "If the Nabob would give me all the Tac in his treasury I would make no peace with him until he had delivered up those murdering rascals: for I never could think that my receiving eleven or twelve Tac of Rupees was a sufficient atonement for the blood of those unfortunate gentlemen at Patna."

Sujah Dowlah thought his honour concerned upon the other side. He refused to surrender the two exiles, but proposed an expedient altogether worthy an Asiatic Prince, that he would give secret orders for the assassination of Sombre, in the presence of any person whom the English General might send to witness the deed. That expedient being, of course, rejected, the war was resumed. A new tide of successes poured in upon the English. Fully in 1765 they reduced the fortress of Chunar, scattered far and wide the force of the enemy, and entered in triumph his great city of Allahabad.

Through all these long years of strife it is gratifying to observe, not merely the valour, but also the mercy and forbearance, of the English owned, at least in private, by their enemies. The skill of Oriental historians has laid open to us the records of a Mussulman historian of that period — the eye-witness in some part of the scenes which he describes. "It must be acknowledged," says he, "to the honour of those strangers that in their conduct in war and in battle is worthy of admiration, so, on the other hand, nothing is more just and more becoming than their behaviour to their enemy."

"Whether in the heat of action, or in the pride of success, and victory, these people seem to act entirely according to the rules observed by our ancient chiefs and heroes." But at the same time, and, no doubt, with equal truth, this historian cannot forbear lamenting the grievous suffering and misrule endured by the helpless Bengalees after the departure of Lord Clive. "Oh God!" thus in another passage citing the Koran, he concludes: "Oh God! come to the assistance of thy afflicted servants, and deliver them from the oppressions they bear!"*

Meanwhile, the transactions in India which followed the departure of Clive had produced no slight amount of discord and cabals in England. These were heightened by the want of any strong and well-framed authority in either country for Eastern affairs. In India whether at Calcutta, at Madras or at Bombay the Governor was entitled to no more than one vote in the Council, with the advantage, should the Council be found equal, of a second, or the casting vote. Moreover, the three Presidencies being as yet upon a footing, and with no central seat of power, were constant rivals, each envious of the other's successes, each believing that undue favour was accorded to the rest. In England the whole body of twenty-four Directors was renewed by annual election. On such occasions, and indeed on many others, the India House became the scene of the most violent debates, and the keenest party-struggles. There were parties formed on every sub-division of selfish interests, the party of Bombay, the party of Madras, the party of Bengal, the party of Mr. Sullivan, the party of Lord Clive. Greater than all these, perhaps, in point of numbers, was the party anxious only for the high rate and the punctual payment of their Dividends. Nor were these cabals

* *See Mirakhasreen*, vol. ii. pp. 102 and 166. These curious contemporary signals were written in Persian by Gholam Hossein, a nobleman of India, and first translated into English by a renegade Frenchman, who took the name of Haji Mustapha. His translation, which was in two volumes, was published at Calcutta in 1789, and another version has been undertaken, in two volumes, of which, however, only the first volume has appeared.

altogether unconnected with the greater parties in the State. Mr. Sullivan, the paramount Director until the appearance of Clive, was supported by Lord Bute. Clive at that time was a follower of Pitt. Thus no one incentive to violence and rancour was wanting from these contests at the India House. At that time every share of 500*l.* conferred a vote, and the manufactory of fictitious votes was carried on to a gigantic scale. Clive, according to his own account spent in this manner no less a sum than 100,000*l.** It was not till 1765, that this evil practice was arrested by an Act of Parliament, which required that each Proprietor, before he voted, should take an oath that the Stock entered in his name was really and in truth his own, and had been so for the last twelve months.

Sullivan and Clive had not at first been enemies. But, as Clive complains in a private letter — "Sullivan has never repaid that confidence in me which my services to the East India Company entitle me to. The consequence has been that we have all along behaved to one another like slaves — at times outwardly expressing 'great regard and friendship' to each other."† Besides, there was a great divergence in their views of Indian affairs. Sullivan was disposed to favour the gentlemen of Bombay, and Clive the gentlemen of Bengal. Sullivan looked mainly to commerce, and Clive mainly to empire. At last an open breach ensued between them. In 1763, Clive made a desperately fought attempt to oust Sullivan, and Sullivan's friends, from the Direction. He failed, and the new Directors revenged themselves by confiscating, contrary to law, the Jaghure, or domain, which had been bestowed upon him by Meer Jaffier. It became necessary for Clive to seek relief by a Bill in the Court of Chancery.

Such was the petty warfare raging at the India House, when ship after ship from Bengal brought news of the growing disorganization of the British power, of misrule and plunder by its servants, of renewed hostilities with the native princes. It began to be felt on all sides that

* Life by Malcolm, vol. ii. p. 211.

† To Mr. Vanantart, November 22, 1763.

the crisis called for Clive,—that he alone could order the confusion and allay the storm. So strong was this feeling in his favour as to carry every thing before it. At a meeting of the Proprietors, held early in the spring of 1764, they proposed to the Directors the immediate restitution of the disputed Jaghire, and the appointment of Lord Clive as both Governor and Commander-in-Chief of Bengal. Clive, who was present, rose to speak. "It would be vain for me," he said, "to exert myself as I ought in India, if my measures are to be thwarted and condemned at home, under the influence of a Chairman who is known to be my personal and inveterate enemy. It is a matter of indifference to me who fills the Chair, if Mr. Sullivan does not; but if he does, I must decline to go." Some reply was attempted by Mr. Sullivan, even amidst the uproar which ensued. He endeavoured to point out the jealousies and heart-burnings which the nomination of Lord Clive might raise among the chiefs already in command. But the tumult around him, if it did not drown his voice, at least overruled his argument. The Directors found themselves, though most unwillingly, compelled to appoint Lord Clive to both the offices desired. It was now within a month of the annual elections; and Clive, in conformity with what he had declared at the last meeting, resolved to abide their issue before he made his decision. The 25th of April was the day of contest. Mr. Sullivan had prepared a list of twenty-three Directors, which he supported by the strenuous exertion of his followers, but at the close, he had not carried more than half his number, and was himself saved from exclusion by only a single vote.

Under these circumstances, not only the Chairman, but also the Deputy-Chairman, was chosen from among Clive's friends. The new Board of Directors, moreover, conferred upon him extraordinary powers. Aided by a Committee of persons of his own naming, he was made, unlike the other Governors, independent of his Council. Clive started with the full purpose to use his powers most vigorously, and to crush at once the abuses which prevailed. In one of his letters, written on ship-board, speaking of the new Board, he said, "Give me leave now to lead you

"a few moments into the civil department. See what an Augean stable is to be cleaned! The confusion we behold, what does it arise from? Rapacity and luxury; the unwarrantable desire of many to acquire in an instant what only a few can or ought to possess. Every man would be rich without the merit of long services; and from this incessant competition, undoubtedly springs that disorder, to which we must apply a remedy, or be undone; for it is not only malignant, but contagious."*

In May 1765, after a long protracted passage, Clive landed at Calcutta. There he found another, a recent and a glaring, instance of the abuses which he came to quell. Meer Jaffier had lately died, and a question had arisen respecting his inheritance. One party at his Court declared for his base-born son, and another for his legitimate but infant grandson—the child of Meeran, who had been struck dead by lightning some years before. Both parties appealed to the Council at Calcutta, but the Council viewed it only as a matter of bargain and sale. They found it easiest to make terms with the illegitimate pretender. He was proclaimed as Nabob of the province, while they received from him, and divided among themselves, the sum of 140,000*l*. Such a course was directly in the teeth of recent orders from home, binding the servants of the Company for the future to accept no presents from the native princes. And Clive might justly complain, not only of the transaction itself, but also of the headlong haste with which, in order to avert his interference, it had been determined. As he writes to one of the gentlemen concerned in the ignominious bargain: "There could have been no danger in declining an absolute conclusion of the treaty until our arrival, which you know was expected every day"†

No time was lost by Lord Clive in assembling the Council, showing them the full powers of his Committee, and announcing his peremptory will. One member, Mr. Johnstone, who had been foremost among the Nabob-makers, attempted a faint demur. "Do you dare to

* Letter dated April 17. 1765.

† To Mr. Spencer, May 12. 1765.

"dispute our authority?" asked Clive haughtily. "I never had the least intention of doing such a thing!" answered the affrighted Johnstone. "Upon this"—as Clive in one of his private letters tells the story—"there was an appearance of very long and pale countenances, and not one of the Council uttered another syllable." Elsewhere he adds: "We arrived on Tuesday, and effected this on Thursday"—and in the interval Clive had to read over and make himself master of all the recent Minutes of proceedings.*

On the landing of Clive, the war with the native princes was by no means over. Sujah Dowlah lay encamped on the borders of Bahar. He was reinforced by bands both of Mahrattas and of Afghans, and wished to try the issue of another battle. But the name of Clive sounded terrible in his ears. No sooner did he learn that the victor of Plassey had again set foot in India, than he determined on unconditional submission. He informed Meer Cossim and Sombre that he could no longer protect them, and connived at their escape—the one seeking shelter among the Rohillas, the other among the Jauts. Then, dismissing his followers, he repaired to the camp of the English, and declared himself ready to accept whatever terms of peace they might impose.

To adjust these terms, Lord Clive himself repaired to Benares. The design of the Council of Calcutta while they pursued the war, had been to wrest from Sujah Dowlah the whole or greater part of Oude. But such were not the views of the new Governor. Instead of aiming at new conquests, it was wiser, he thought, in the first place to secure those already gained by a firmer and sounder tenure. "Let us guard," he said, "against future evils, by doing for ourselves what no Nabob will ever do for us."† On this principle he acted. To Sujah Dowlah, who continued to bear the rank and title of Vizier, he gave back the greater part of Oude. He reserved only the two districts of Corah and Allahabad as an imperial domain for Shah Alum; to whom it was also agreed that the Company should make from their re-

venues an annual payment of twenty-six Lacs of Rupees. On the other hand, he obtained from the fallen Emperor a **BEMANEE** or public Deed, conferring on the English Company the sole right of administration throughout the provinces of Bengal, Orissa, and Bahar.

In this transaction, as in almost every other in India during the same period, it is striking how wide was the interval between nominal authority and effective power. Here we find the heir of Aurungzebe treated with as though still supreme, as though able at his pleasure to bestow upon the Europeans, or to withhold from them, the exercise of sovereignty in three great provinces. Yet at this very time, so low had his fortunes fallen, as to leave him destitute of even the common trappings or appurtenances of high state. During the solemn ceremony of the investiture, it was an English dining-table, covered over, that formed the Imperial Throne! * Such was the prince, of whom the English in India continued to call themselves the vassals, whose coin they struck at their mint, whose titles they bore upon their public Seal.

In this transaction, though it manifestly set aside the authority of the Musnud at Moorshedabad, there was no objection raised, by the young Nabob. With him, as with most Asiatic despots, the contingent future was but an empty name; and his desire to obtain a fixed and regular income, no longer to be embezzled or diverted by his Ministers, overbalanced every other consideration in his feeble mind. As Lord Clive writes to Mr. Verelst: "He received the proposal of having a sum of money for himself and his household at his will with infinite pleasure, and the only reflection he made upon leaving me was: 'Thank God! I shall now have as many dancing girls as I please!'" †

The sagacious views of Clive, on the contrary, went far beyond his treaty or his time. As he writes to the Directors, we find him urge proposals, all of which have since been carried into effect, but several not until a long course (which his foresight would have spared them) of

* Malcolm's Life of Clive, vol. ii.

† To Mr. Verelst, July 11, 1757.

discord and confusion. We find him recommend that the Governor of Bengal should have a larger salary, but be restrained from trade—that Calcutta should be made the chief seat of the government of India—that a Governor-General should be nominated with the power, in cases of emergency, to take his decision independent of the Council. In a private letter to the Deputy-Chairman, he combats the anxiety resulting from such vast provinces to govern beyond so many thousand miles of sea: "With regard to the magnitude of our possessions be not staggered. Assure yourself that the Company must either be what they are or be annihilated." But even without any view as to the future, and, looking solely at the present, Lord Clive might boast, that by his treaty he had secured to his countrymen a net revenue annually of 2,000,000*l*. He might boast, that he had freed them from any further dependence on the character or the conduct, the intrigues or the cabals, of the successive heirs of Meer Jaffer, whom he reduced, in fact, to little more than high pensioners of state.

Nevertheless, it formed a part of the policy of Clive, that the whole detail of the revenue department should still, for some time at least, be directed by a native Prime Minister, resident at Moorshedabad but responsible only to Calcutta. Two competitors appeared for this great office—Nuncomar at the head of the Brahmins—Mahomed Reza Khan at the head of the Mussulmans. There seemed a manifest advantage in preferring the former, as representing by far the greater numbers in race and in religion. Such was also the desire of Clive. But on full examination it appeared that the character of Nuncomar was stained by more than one act of fraud and even forgery. Moreover, at this very time, as Clive complains, he was seeking to establish a most pernicious influence on the mind of the young Nabob. "It is really shocking," writes the hero of Plassey, "what a set of miserable and mean wretches Nuncomar has placed about him; men who the other day were horse-keepers." On the whole, therefore, after great deliberation, the choice fell upon Mahomed Reza Khan.

Having thus dealt with the Hindoos, Clive applied himself to the Europeans. He exacted from the civil

servants of the Company a written covenant, pledging them to accept no future presents from the native princes. Many murmured, some resigned, but no one dared to disobey. Another measure which Clive considered most essential, and found most difficult, but which he succeeded in enforcing, was, to debar the men in high places from private trade, granting them as some compensation, a share in the salt monopoly. With respect to the military officers, Clive announced his intention to deprive them of the large dole or additional allowance, which, under the name of *DOUBLE BATTAs*, had been granted them by Meer Jaffer after the battle of Plassey, but which, as Clive had always explained to them could not, in all probability, be continued by the Company. In fact, the Court of Directors issued the most positive orders that the Double Batta should be discontinued. These orders had been several times repeated but the remonstrances of the army had hitherto prevented the Governor and Council from giving them effect. For, according to the bitter sarcasm hurled against them at a later period, the military could not be held without a "virtuous emulation" the "moderate gains" of the civil service.* In abolishing their Double Batta, Clive had to encounter, not remonstrances merely, nor dissatisfaction, but even mutiny. Nearly two hundred officers combining together, bound themselves by an oath of secrecy, and undertook to fling up their Commissions on one and the same day. It added not a little to the dangers of the league that it was, though in private instigated by no less a man than Sir Robert Fletcher, the second in command to Clive, who had headed the troops and with success, in the last campaign. Each officer separately pledged himself under a bond of 500*l.* not to resume his Commission, unless the Double Batta was first restored. In support of those who might be cashiered, a subscription was begun in camp to which subscription, it is said, that no less than 16,000*l.* were added from the wealthy civilians at Calcutta.

The idea of the conspirators (for surely they deserve no milder name) was that in a country like India,—held

* Speech of Burke on Mr. Fox's East India Bill, December 1

solely by the sword. — Clive could not dispense with their services even for a single day, and must succumb to their demands. Far from daunted, however, Clive set off in person for the camp at Monghir. The heavy rains and the stifling heat delayed his progress; and he was further weighed down by an illness, resulting from fatigue of body and anxiety of mind. But his spirit never for one instant quailed. On his arrival, he assembled and addressed the officers and men, pointing out to them the guilt of their course on public grounds. The points that merely touched himself he passed by with generous disdain. There were two officers accused of declaring that they would attempt to stab or shoot him dead; and words to that effect were certainly used, though as certainly proceeding only from the heat and folly of the moment. Clive declared most justly that he gave no belief whatever to any such design. He was well assured, he said, that he was speaking to Englishmen and not assassins. Several of the officers were touched and reclaimed by his manly firmness. Several others, though but few, had stood by him from the first. The Sepoys, who had ever looked up to him with especial reverence, and comprising some perhaps of the same men who had offered to give up for him their rice at Arcot, cried out that nothing should make them swerve from their English hero, — Sabut Jung.* Clive, on his part, declared that nothing should make him swerve from his fixed purpose. If necessary, he would send for other officers from Madras. If necessary, he would summon clerks at their desks (such as in his outset he had been) to serve as soldiers. He would do all or any thing rather than yield to mutiny. Thus, while indulgent to the younger and less experienced officers, and willing to receive their tokens of contrition, he ordered the ringleaders into arrest, and sent them down the Ganges for trial at Calcutta. He did not shrink even from the bold measure of cashiering his second in command.

His letter to the members of his Council at Calcutta breathed a determined tone. "I tell you again; "remember to act with the greatest spirit. If the ci-

"I will entertain the officers, disband them the service ; and if the latter behave with insolence or are refractory, make them all prisoners and confine them in the new fort. If you have any thing to apprehend, write me word, and I will come down instantly and bring with me the Third Brigade, whose officers and men can be depended upon."*

By such firmness was averted the shame of a successful mutiny,—"a shame which, in Clive's own strong language, all the waters of the Ganges could never wash away. The privates showed no disposition to support their officers, and scarce any of the latter but displayed symptoms of repentance. Of the chiefs of the mutiny at Monghir, who were sent away in boats for trial, many were seen to embark with tears in their eyes. The younger or less guilty officers, who at the outset had been threatened with death if they drew back, now pleaded with the greatest earnestness to be allowed to recall their resignations. In most cases, but always as an act of grace and favour, their humble supplications were allowed, while the remaining vacancies were filled by a judicious choice of subalterns.

All this time the conduct of Clive was giving a lofty example of disregard to lucre. He did not spare his own personal resources, and was able some years afterwards to boast in the House of Commons, that this his second Indian command had left him poorer than it found him. His enemies might indeed observe, that the virtue of disinterestedness is not so hard to practise when a fortune of forty thousand pounds a year has been already gained. Yet still the fact remains, that when presents from one of the native Princes laid the foundations of his wealth the practice of receiving them was both usual and allowed, and that when it ceased to be at least the latter stood firm against all temptation. In vain did the Rajah of Benares press upon him two diamonds of large size. In vain did the Nabob Visier produce a rich cabinet of jewels and offer a large sum of money. Lord Clive then wrote an officer by no means his friend from India, that then he had added at least half a million to his fortune, and we

* Letter to Mr. Verelst, 1757.

may further prove that the receipt of such gifts might have probably remained a secret, since even their refusal was not known until after his decease.

In the corrections which Lord Clive applied to both the civil and military services, and in his general course of policy, he had, on some points, no more than fulfilled the positive instructions of the Court of Directors. On other points he obtained their entire approbation. But there were one or two besides on which he did not shrink from the painful duty of daring their displeasure, and standing firm against their peremptory orders. On the whole it may be said, that his second command was not less important for reform than his first had been for conquest. By this, the foundations, at least, of good government were securely laid. And the results might have been far greater still, could Clive have remained longer at his post. But the burning climate, combined with ceaseless anxiety and toil, had grievously impaired his health. In December, 1766, we find him during several weeks disabled from all writing, and at the close of the ensuing month he found it necessary to embark for England. He left the government to a man of no more than average ability—Mr. Verelst; yet under him there still continued the impulse given by a stronger hand.

At this period, the main point of interest changes from the Presidency of Bengal to the Presidency of Madras. There, the English were becoming involved in another war. There, they had now, for the first time, to encounter the most skilful and daring of all the enemies against whom they ever fought in India—Hyder Ali. He was of humble origin, the grandchild of a wandering FAKIR or Mahomedan monk. Most versatile in his talents, Hyder was no less adventurous in his career; by turns a privateer, devoted to sports of the chase, a captain of freebooters, a partisan-chief, a rebel against the Rajah of Mysore, and commander-in-chief of the Mysorean army. Of this last position he availed himself to dethrone and supplant his master. Indeed, during his whole course, we seldom find him either restrained by scruples or bound by principles. No single instance of the kind will suffice to paint his character. A Brahmin, Khonde Row by name, was his close confederate, but afterwards

his army, having taken the field against him, was reduced to the point of surrender. The Rajah and the ladies of the palace sent a joint message to Hyder, pleading for their friend the Brahmin, and inquiring what terms he might expect. "I will not only spare his life," said Hyder, "but I will cherish him like a parrot." Nevertheless, no sooner was the Brahmin in his hands than he was treated with the utmost rigour, and imprisoned for the remainder of his life in an iron cage. When Hyder was thereupon gently reminded of his promise, he answered, that he had literally kept his word, referring in proof to the cage in which the captive was confined, and to the rice and milk allotted for his daily food!*

Pursuing his ambitious schemes, Hyder Ali became, not merely the successor of the Rajah, but the founder of the kingdom of Mysore. From his palace at Seringapatam, as from a centre, a new energy was infused through the whole of Southern India. By various wars and by the dispossession of several smaller princes, he extended his frontiers to the northward, nearly to the river Kistna. His posts on the coast of Malabar, Mangalore especially, gave him the means of founding a marine; and he applied himself with assiduous skill to train and discipline his troops according to the European models. The English at Madras were roused by his ambition, without as yet fully appreciating his genius. We find them at the beginning of 1767 engaged, with little care or forethought, in a confederacy against him with the Nizam and the Mahrattas. Formidable as that confederacy might seem, it was speedily dissipated by the arts of Hyder. At the very outset, a well-timed subsidy bought off the Mahrattas. The Nizam showed no better faith; he was only more tardy in his treason. He took the field in concert with a body of English commanded by Colonel Joseph Smith, but soon began to show symptoms of defection, and at

*Colonel Wilks's *Historical Sketches of the South of India*, vol. i. p. 434. Sir John Malcolm, in his first mission to Persia, gives an account of *Tootee*, a young dancing-girl, who became a favourite of the Shah. "*Tootee*," adds Sir John, "is a Persian word for a parrot, a bird which is proverbially famous for its knowledge and habits of attachment." *Journal of Sir John Malcolm's Mission to Persia*, in 1821, ed. 1845.)

last drew off his troops to join the army of Hyder. A battle ensued at Trichinopoly, in September, 1797. Colonel Smith had under him no more than 1,500 Europeans and 5,000 Sepoys; while the forces combined on the other side were estimated, probably with much exaggeration, at 70,000 men. Nevertheless, Victory, as usual, declared for the English cause. The Nizam in this action showed himself destitute alike of conduct and of courage. At the outset, he had valiantly cried:—"Sooner than yield, I would share the fate of Nazir Jung."* Yet within an hour afterwards, the Indian prince was in full gallop to the westward; and his troops proved perfectly worthy of such a chief. Almost the only instance of spirit in his army was displayed by one of the ladies of his palace. These he had brought with him on a train of elephants, as spectators of his expected triumph. In his own panic he ordered that these elephants also should be turned for flight. Then, from one of the covered canopies a woman's voice was heard:—"This elephant has not been taught so to turn; he follows the standard of the 'empire.'" Accordingly, though the English shot was falling thick around her, the female assertor of the honour of the empire would not allow her elephant to be drawn aside until first the standard had passed.†

On the other hand, the troops of Hyder Ali, both then and afterwards, displayed not merely the effects of a braver chief and of a better discipline, but also the energies of a robuster race. The people within the Ghauts or hill-passes of Southern India, though far below the mountain races of Afghian, are yet far superior to the Hindoos of the plains. In these, the delicacy of limbs and the softness of muscles must be reckoned among the foremost causes of their failure on a battle-field. In these, the utter want of strength in their bodily organisation is only, on some occasions and for some purposes, redeemed by its suppleness. It has been computed, that two Hindoo labourers can perform in one day the work

* See *History of the Carnatic*, p. 301.

† *Warren Hastings*, vol. ii. p. 38. I am sorry to spoil the story, but the loss of several elephants was the "consequence of the Nizam's demur."

of thirty-two Indians. Yet, as the same authority assures us, are the same men as tumblers, and these are none so extraordinary in the world. Or employ them as messengers, and they will go fifty miles a day for twenty or thirty days without intermission.*

Our victory at Trincomalee produced as its speedy consequence a treaty of peace with the Nizam. Hyder was left alone; but even thus proved fully a match for the English both of Madras and of Bombay. The latter had fitted out a naval armament, which, in the course of the winter, reduced his sea-port of Mangalore and destroyed his rising fleet. Against these new enemies Hyder, like some wild beast at bay, made a sudden bound. Leaving to the eastward a force sufficient to employ and delude Colonel Joseph Smith, he silently descended the western Ghauts, and in May 1768, at the very time when least expected, appeared before the gates of Mangalore. The English garrison taken by surprise, hastily re-embarked in boats, relinquishing all their artillery and stores, and leaving also more than two hundred sick and wounded to the mercy, or rather the politic forbearance, of their crafty foe.

Returning to the eastward, Hyder Ali continued to wage the war against Colonel Smith; inferior on any field of battle, but prevailing in wiles and stratagems, in early intelligence, and in rapid marches. He could not be prevented from laying waste the southern plains of the Carnatic, as the territory of one of the staunchest allies of England, Mahomed Ali, the Nabob of Arcot. Through such ravages, the British troops often underwent severe privations. Moreover, Colonel Smith was trammelled by the same system so often and so justly complained of in the wars of Marlborough—the appointment of field-deputies. Two members of the Council of Madras had been sent into his camp with full powers to control—that is, to clog and thwart—his operations.

At length, in the spring of 1769, Hyder Ali became desirous of peace, and resolved to extort favourable terms. First, by 'a dexterous' feint he deceived the

* See an essay by Mr. Orme, in his *History of the Military Empire*, p. 463.

British forces, a hundred and forty miles to the southward of Madras. Then suddenly, at the head of five thousand horsemen, Hyder himself appeared at St. Thomas's Mount, within ten miles of that city. The terrified Members of the Council already, in their mind's eye, saw their country-houses given up to plunder and to flame, and were little inclined to dispute whatever might be asked by an enemy so near at hand. Happily his terms were not high. A treaty was signed, providing that a mutual restoration of conquests should take place, and that the contracting parties should agree to assist each other in all defensive wars.

In the career of Hyder Ali, this was by no means the first, nor yet the last occasion, on which he showed himself sincerely desirous of alliance with the English. He did not conceal the fact, that, in order to maintain his power and secure himself, he must lean either on them or on the Mahrattas. He would have preferred the first; it was the vacillation and weakness of the council at Madras that drove him to the latter. Finding his overtures of friendship slighted, he took his part, as always, decidedly and boldly. He became, even in the midst of peace, a known and ardent enemy of the English race and name; ever watchful for any opening to assail them; ever ready to league himself against them with the Mahratta chiefs at Pona, or the French Governors at Pondicherry.

It was no common enemy whom the Madras traders (who could, at that period call them statesmen?) thus neglected or defied. The vigorous administration of Hyder at his Court of Seringapatam, has been closely viewed and well described by more than one European in his service. Like the other Indian Princes, he was addicted to licentious pleasure. Unlike them, he was never mastered by it. Many of his leisure hours were passed in the company of dancing girls. To intoxication likewise he was often prone; and one instance is recorded, how, in that state, he was seen by his whole Court to seize and severely cane his grown-up son, Tippoo. It may be added, that, on common occasions, his toilet took up a considerable portion of his time. But no sooner was he thus threatened, or any object of ambition

rise in view, than all such habits of indulgence were properly cast aside; and Hyder passed whole days and nights retired in his council-chambers, or on horseback with his cavalry. At all times he was most easy of access; freely receiving all those who desired to see him, except only the Fakirs; a significant token of the degree of esteem in which he held his grandfather's profession. From all others he quickly drew whatever information he desired; and in dealing with them, manifested the keenest insight of their various characters. So far had his education been neglected, that he could neither read nor write. He made no later attempt at scholarship, but relied upon the powers of a most retentive memory, and upon a shrewdness hard to be deceived. He might be careless of his people's welfare for their sake, but he anxiously sought it for his own; he knew that to make them prosperous would, beyond all other causes, make him powerful; and thus through the wide extent of the kingdom that he founded, he never failed to guard them from all vague depredation or inferior tyranny.

By such means did he who had first set forth as a freebooter, with one or two score of followers, leave behind him at his peaceful end a well-appointed army of a hundred thousand soldiers, and a treasure of three millions sterling. Yet, prosperous as he seemed, Hyder was not happy. It is recorded of one of his attendants, that after watching for some time his short and uneasy slumbers, he ventured at his waking to inquire of his dreams. "Believe me, my friend," said Hyder, "my dominion, envied though it may be, is in truth far less desirable than the state of the Yogees (the religious mendicants); awake, they see no conspirators; asleep, they dream of no assassins!"*

In this war with Hyder, the English had lost no great amount of reputation, and of territory they had lost none at all. But as regards their wealth and their resources,

* The character and habits of Hyder Ali are described in History by M. Le Maître de La Tour, a Frenchman, who commanded his artillery. Some considerable extracts from his work will be found in the Annual Register for 1784 (part i. p. 100), and may be compared with various passages in the present work (especially vol. i. pp. 247. and 361., and vol. ii. p. 100.)

they had suffered severely. Supplies both of men and of money had been required from Bengal, to assist the government of Madras; and both had been freely given. In consequence of such a drain, there could not be made the usual investments in goods, nor yet the usual remittances to England. Thus at the very time when the proprietors of the East India Company had begun to wish each other joy on the great reforms effected by Lord Clive, and looked forward to a further increase of their half-yearly Dividend, they were told to prepare for its reduction. A panic ensued. Within a few days in the spring of 1769, India Stock fell above sixty per cent.*

At that period, indeed, as for some years before it nothing could be more unsteady than the wishes, or more precarious than the prospects, of the great Company. Party-spirit continued to rage at their elections; the contests between the followers of Sullivan and the followers of Clive being renewed every year with varying success. Each party, when defeated, heaped the grossest imputations on the other, as on the lowest and basest of mankind; and in that respect the public were inclined to give an equal belief to both. In such a state of things the very existence of the Company seemed to hang upon the breath of any great man in Parliament. Thus was Lord Clive, while still in India, addressed by one of his principal agents in England, Mr. Walsh:—"I am very sorry you did not write a few lines to Mr Pitt, to conciliate him to your negotiations. I spoke a few words to him just as he left the House of Commons, and whilst he was getting on his great coat. . . . He answered me that he had heard of the great things you had done; that you had gained much honour, but that they were too vast. . . . One word from him would be of use in making or unmaking the Company."† This was in May. 1766, while Pitt was still a private Member of Parliament; but when, in the July following, he became Prime Minister, with the title of Chatham, still the same importance, of course, attached to his opinion. In the former chapter I have fully shown how he entered upon his office with the fixed determination to take

* *Annals of the East India Company*, vol. iii. p. 180.

into our own hands the government of our Eastern empire; how his purpose was baffled, not through any efforts of the East India Company, but through his own mysterious illness; and how the men succeeding him in power, though unable to pursue his policy, were reduced merely to stave off the main question, or to patch up temporary terms. But they, for their own part, were well satisfied, since the Company undertook, meanwhile, to pay to the revenue 400,000*l.* each year. As a further concession, arising from the financial embarrassments of 1769, it was agreed by the Directors that Commissioners of Inquiry, under the name of Supervisors, should be sent to India with full powers over the other servants of the Company. Three gentlemen of old standing and long service — Mr. Vansittart, Mr. Scrafton, and Colonel Ford — were selected for this important trust. Accordingly they embarked on their mission towards the close of the same year. But after leaving the Cape of Good Hope, the ship in which they sailed, the *Aurora* frigate, was never heard of again: it is supposed to have foundered at sea.

It is not improbable that this system of makeshifts might have still continued, and the necessity of any more decisive measures been longer postponed. But in the ensuing year, 1770, a new and more grievous calamity overspread Bengal. The usual rains having failed, there was no water in the tanks, and the rivers shrank into shallows. The rice-fields continued parched and dry, and could not yield their expected produce, while the conflagration of several large granaries completed the work of misery. A terrible famine ensued; a famine such as Europe, during the last few ages, has never known even in its rudest districts, or behind beleaguered walls. Throughout the wide valley of the Ganges, the country places were deserted, and the cities, where alone there might be hope of food, became thronged with starving multitudes, from whom piteous cries were heard. The common misery united, for the first and only time, the men of the most opposite castes — from the Brahmin of lofty lineage down to the humblest of the Niai-dees.*

* The Niai-dees were described a few years ago by Mr. Conolly, Collector of Revenue in Bengal, as being supposed

Even the Zemindars now gave forth its guarded inmates, who, no longer veiled with jealous care, but prostrate and wailing on the ground, implored from the passers by, if not for themselves, at least for their little children, a handful — only a handful — of rice. Thousands and tens of thousands of human beings died daily in the streets, where the vultures swooped down and the dogs and jackals flocked in quest of their ghastly prey. In Calcutta alone there were daily employed one hundred men, on the Company's account, to pile the dead bodies upon sledges and cars, and throw them into the Ganges. The broad river was itself so far tainted that its fish ceased to be wholesome food. Hogs, ducks, and geese, which had likewise taken part in devouring the carcases, could no longer themselves be safely eaten; and thus, as the famine grew greater, the means of subsistence, even to the Europeans, grew less. It was computed, not in any rhetorical flight, not amidst the horror of the sufferings described, but in a grave despatch written two years afterwards, though even then perhaps with some exaggeration, that through Bengal this dreadful famine had destroyed in many places one half and, on the whole, above one third, of the inhabitants.* These evil tidings from India did not come alone. Conjoined with them were rumours and charges that the distress had been greatly aggravated by the conduct of the Company's servants; that at the very outset of the famine they had engrossed all the rice of the country, and that afterwards they slowly doled it out at tenfold the price they had paid. If in truth there were any such cases, they can have been but few. They were in direct contravention

"to be the descendants of a Brahmin excommunicated many centuries ago, and they are regarded as outcasts even by the slaves, whom they are not allowed to approach within forty paces." (Despatch to the Government of Madras, May 7. 1845. *MS.)

* Letter of the Governor and Council, Nov. 3. 1772, and Mr. Burke's Speech of Charge, xx. part i. It is remarkable that Mr. Mill, who has given several large tomes to the History of British India, has not mentioned one of the most striking and important events of their history, the massacre of Patna, and the famine of Bengal, — in one sentence. (Vol. iii. pp. 346. and 486., ed. 1840.) Thanks to Frothingham's edition, these volumes are now enriched by many excellent and valuable annotations.

of the Directors' orders, and of Lord Clive's rules. For my part, indeed, I strongly incline to the belief that, looking to the whole of this dismal period, and waiving, perhaps, some rare exceptions, the Hindoos were benefited, and so far as relief was possible, relieved, by the presence among them of their civilised and Christian rulers. Charges like these made against the latter, are common among every rude people at every dispensation of Providence. If there be a pestilence, they complain that the springs were poisoned by the malice of their enemies. If there be a famine, they feel sure that the grain has been fraudulently hoarded and usuriously dispensed.

Such charges, however, could not fail to make some impression on both the Ministry and Parliament of England. Even allowing them to be unfounded, there was yet an ample growth of abuses, rank and stubborn, to hew down in the Company's affairs. It was felt on all sides that there was more need than ever of investigation — more need and now more leisure also. The government of Lord North had by this time attained some degree of stability, and the nation some degree of repose. In the first place some legislation (perhaps to prevent any other more effective) was attempted by Mr. Sullivan, who had once more become the Deputy-Chairman of the Company. It was answered that as yet there was not sufficient information. Accordingly, in April 1772, and on the motion of General Burgoyne, there was appointed, by means of ballot, a Committee of Inquiry, bearing the title of "Select," though consisting of no less than thirty-one Members. Within six weeks that Committee prepared and presented two Reports; but the approaching close of the Session precluded any further step at that time.

Parliament met again in November the same year. Yet, during that short interval, the affairs of the Company had greatly altered for the worse. So low had their credit sunk with the Bank of England, that they found it necessary to apply to the First Lord of the Treasury for a loan of at least a million sterling. The Minister received their application, and said that he should leave it to the decision of the House of Commons.

ingly, at the very commencement of the new Session, Lord North moved for, and carried, a Secret Committee of thirteen Members to be chosen by ballot, and to take into their consideration the whole state of the Company's affairs. At the same time he agreed that the Select Committee of the preceding Session should be revived.

The Directors, trembling at the prospect of inquiry by others, and eager, if they could, to stifle or suppress it by an inquiry of their own, had already passed a Resolution, to send out to India, at their sole expense, a new batch of Supervisors. But the alertness of the Secret Committee defeated this manœuvre. Within ten days a report to the House of Commons pointed out that the step designed by the Directors might prove a serious obstacle in the way of Parliament, and recommended therefore that Parliament should interpose to arrest it. A Bill was accordingly brought in, to restrain, for a limited time, the East India Company from appointing Supervisors in India. To this measure the Directors and their friends in the House offered all the opposition in their power. Burke, who was then upon their side, went so far as to exclaim, "Shame upon such proceedings! Here is an end to confidence and public faith!" With better reason and more temper, Lord North disclaimed all grounds of personal hostility. "It is our wish," he said, "to make the East India Company a great and glorious Company, and settle it upon a permanent foundation."* Under such patronage the Bill was passed by large majorities.

This Bill, however, could only be deemed, as a lawyer might have termed it, an arrest of judgment. Later during the same Session, in the spring of 1773, Lord North proposed and carried through, against all gainsayers, his own measure of reform. This, after it had passed, was commonly called the Regulating Act. In the first place, he granted to the Company a loan of 1,500,000*l.* for four years, and relieved them from the annual payment to the State of 400,000*l.* On the other hand, the Company was restrained from making any greater interest than six per cent. until the loan should

be repaid, or any greater dividend than eight per cent. until the public should have some participation in the profits. It was then enacted, that instead of annual elections of the whole number of Directors at the India House, six should go out of office each year, and none keep their seats longer than four years. At the same time, the qualification for a vote in each proprietor was raised from 500*l.* to 1000*l.*, with more votes in proportion, up to four, to each proprietor of a larger sum.

In India, the Act provided that the Mayor's Court of Calcutta should be restricted in its jurisdiction to petty cases of trade, and that in its place should be constituted a Supreme Court, to consist of a Chief Justice, and three Puisne Judges, appointed by the Crown. The Governor of Bengal was henceforth to have authority over the other Presidencies, as Governor-General of India, but was himself to be controlled by his Council. In that Council, as previously, he was entitled only to a single or, in case of equality, a casting vote. It was proposed that these nominations should be made by Parliament, and continue for five years; after which they should revert to the Directors, but subject to the approbation of the Crown. In the progress therefore of the Bill through the Commons, the Members of the new Council were expressly named, so as to become a part of the enactment. Warren Hastings, who a year before had assumed the administration of Bengal, was appointed the first Governor-General. Another of the new Council, Richard Barwell, was already at his post; the new Members to be sent from England were General Clavering, the Hon. Colonel Monson, and Philip Francis.

Another clause of Lord North's Bill remitted the drawback on the East India Company's Teas — a step so little regarded at its outset, but so momentous in its consequences, and which has been fully treated in another place.* The Directors at the time were not less gratified with this boon, or any other, when compared with the curtailment of their previous powers. They declared, in a petition to the House, that they would forego the loan which they had solicited, than surrender the con-

* See vol. v. of this History.

ditions which the Minister imposed. But their late misgovernment had been such as to render, in Parliament at least, their adherents few and their lamentations disregarded.

In the course of these proceedings, both before the Committee and within the House, many a shaft was let fly at Lord Clive. Besides the public wrongs of which he stood accused, there was also, it may be feared, a feeling of personal envy at work against him. His vast wealth became a more striking mark for calumny when contrasted with the financial embarrassments of the Directors in whose service he had gained it. And his profusion, as ever happens, offended far more persons than it pleased. He had bought the noble seat of Claremont from the Duchess Dowager of Newcastle, and was improving it at lavish cost. He had so far invested money in the smaller boroughs that he could reckon on bringing into Parliament a retinue of six or seven friends and kinsmen.* Under such circumstances the Select Committee, over which Burgoyne presided, made Clive their more especial object of attack. They drew forth into the light of day several transactions certainly not well formed to bear it, as the forgery of Admiral Watson's signature, and the fraud practised on Omichund. But at the same time they could not shut out the lustre of the great deeds he had performed. Clive himself was unsparingly questioned, and treated with slight regard. As he complains, in one of his speeches: "I, their humble servant, the Baron of Plassey, have been examined by the Select Committee more like a sheep-stealer than a Member of this House!" And he adds, with perfect truth, "I am sure, Sir, if I had any sore places about me they would have been found: they have probed me to the bottom; no lenient plasters have been applied to heal them, Sir; they were all of the blister kind, prepared with Spanish flies, and other provocatives!"

On several and some other occasions Clive spoke in his own defence in a frank and fearless spirit, with great energy and courage, and, it would seem, with great effect.

* Letter to the House of Commons, January 19, 1768. Malcolm's Life, vol. II. p. 219.

upon the House. He was likewise happy in the friendship and assistance of Mr. Wedderburn, then Solicitor-General. It was in May, 1773, that the charges against him, till then vague and undefined, were brought forward as a vote of censure by Burgoyne. To the Government it became an open question. The Attorney-General spoke strongly on the side of the accusers. The Solicitor-General conducted the defence. A great number of placemen and King's Friends took the part of Clive, while the Prime Minister, Lord North, walked into the lobby against him. In the result, the first Resolutions of Burgoyne, alleging certain matters of fact that could scarcely be denied, were carried. But the next, which charged Lord Clive by name with having abused his powers, and 'set an evil example to the servants of the public, did not pass. At length, as the dawn was slowly breaking on the last of these long and stormy, and in many parts confused, debates, the House agreed almost unanimously to some words which Wedderburn moved: "That Robert Lord Clive did at the same time, render "great and meritorious services to his country."

Such a vote might perhaps be deemed almost a verdict of acquittal. Certainly, at least, it showed a wise reluctance to condemn. It closed the whole case, and Clive had no further Parliamentary attack to fear. But the previous taunts and injuries appear to have sunk deep into his haughty mind. Nor was a life of ease, however splendid, congenial to his active temper. In his sumptuous halls of Claremont, or beneath the stately cedars of his park, he was far less really happy than amidst his former toils and cares, on the tented plains of the Carnatic or in the council-chambers of Bengal. Moreover, through the climate of the tropics, his health was most grievously impaired. He had to undergo sharp and oft-recurring spasms of pain, for which opium only could afford him its treacherous and transitory aid. At length, in November 1774, at his house in Berkeley Square, this great man, for such he surely was, fell by his own hand. He was not yet fifty years of age, and the contest in North America was just then beginning to hold forth to him a new career of action, — a new chaplet of honourable fame.

To the last, however, he appears to have retained his serene demeanour, and the stern dominion of his will. It so chanced, that a young lady, an attached friend of his family, was then upon a visit at his house in Berkeley Square, and sat, writing a letter, in one of its apartments. Seeing Lord Clive walk through, she called to him to come and mend her pen. Lord Clive obeyed her summons, and taking out his penknife fulfilled her request; after which, passing on to another chamber, he turned the same knife against himself. This tale, though traditional, has a high contemporary voucher. It was related by the Earl of Shelburne, afterwards the first Marquis of Lansdowne to the person from whom I received it.

CHAPTER LXVIII.

INDIA.

WARREN HASTINGS, the first Governor-General of India, was born in 1732. He was sprung from a branch, or rather, as they alleged, the main stem, of the great old house of Hastings, from which in another line the Earls of Huntingdon descend. But at the time of little Warren's birth, his branch was fast decaying; and Daylesford, its ancient seat in Worcestershire, was already sold. It was only through the kindness of a kinsman that he obtained his education at Westminster School; and when that relative died he was shipped off at seventeen as a Writer to Bengal. He was noticed by Lord Clive as a man of promise. Under Mr. Vansittart he had much more opportunity to shine. Thus, through the various gradations of the Civil Service at that time, he sped with credit and success. Having married, but become a widower, he returned to England in 1765. But four years afterwards he was again sent forth, as second in the Council of Madras; and early in 1772 he proceeded to a far higher, and, as it proved, more lasting post, as first in the Council of Bengal.

Spare in form and shrunk in features, with a mild voice and with gentle manners, Warren Hastings might seem to a casual observer as wanting in manly firmness. It is remarkable that, on his appointment as Governor of Bengal, Lord Clive deemed it right to warn him against this, as he imagined, the weak point of his character. "I thought,"—thus writes Lord Clive from England,— "I discovered in you a diffidence in your own judgment and too great an easiness of disposition, which was subject you insensibly to be led where you ought to guide." * Never was an error more complete. Among so many

* Letter, August 1. 1771. Life by Macartney, vol. i. p. 160.

qualities, good and evil, which distinguished Hastings through the thirteen years of his eventful rule, there was none more marked and striking than his unvarying determination, and resolute fixedness of purpose. With but few partakers of his councils, and, perhaps, none of his full confidence, he formed his purpose singly, and, once formed, adhered to it as to the compass of his course;—regarding as nought delay of time, or variety of means, or change of instruments, so long as the aim was kept in view and by degrees attained.

One strong instance of this tenacity of purpose is recorded by Hastings himself in the chit-chat of his later years. He was telling of a streamlet which skirts the domain of Daylesford, and also the village of Churchill, his dwelling-place in childhood, and which thence flows onwards to join the Isis at Cotswold. "To lie beside the margin of that stream and muse, was," said Mr. Hastings, "one of my favourite recreations; and there one bright summer's day, when I was scarcely seven years old, I well remember that I first formed the determination to purchase back Daylesford. I was then quite dependent upon those who were themselves scarcely raised above want; yet somehow or other the child's dream, as it did not appear unreasonable at the moment, so in after years it never faded away. God knows there were times in my career, when to accomplish that or any object of honourable ambition, seemed to be impossible, but I have lived to accomplish this." *

Indeed it may be said of Hastings, that tenacity of purpose was not merely the principal feature of his character, but the key and main-spring of the rest. It made him, on the one hand, consistent and courageous, and with views of policy far beyond the passing hour; not easily perplexed by doubts or cast down by reverses; and worthy in all respects the inscription beneath his portrait, as it hangs to this day in the council-chamber of Calcutta, *SPES AQUA IN ARDUIS*. On the other hand, it

* Memoirs of Warren Hastings, by the Rev. G. R. Gleig, vol. k. p. 9. ed. 1857. The work the comments on each transaction are those of the great advocate for Hastings, but it contains many extracts from his letters, and of great value, from Hastings's private correspondence.

gave him a certain hardness and insensibility of heart ; it made him, on several great occasions in his long career, callous to the sufferings which his policy inflicted, and careless of the means by which his policy might be pursued. He was firm, it may be added, in all his friendships and attachments, but few men have ever been more rancorous and unforgiving.

It was one among the merits of Hastings, that he had made himself thoroughly acquainted, not only with the literature, but also with the temper and feelings, of the nations which he came to rule. Their languages he spoke with ease and fluency ; their prejudices, whether of religion or of race, he was ever, unless impelled by some state-necessity, studious not to wound. By such means he was at all times, whether in his triumphs or in his hours of danger and distress, a favourite with the native tribes of Hindostan — a favourite, moreover, at a period when in most cases they had little or no sympathy for the island-strangers. Bishop Heber was told by one of his Mussulman attendants, that he well remembered the time when all black people ran away from a white face ; and when the appearance of a single European soldier struck a whole village with affright. " They used 'to them now,' he added, ' they know they no harm do ! ' " *

It was not merely Oriental knowledge that Hastings had acquired. At Westminster School he had deeply imbued his mind with classic lore. " What ! lose Warren — lose the best scholar of his year ! " had the Head-Master, Dr. Nichols, cried with generous spirit, when the boy's appointment for Bengal was first announced to him. " That will not do at all. Let him remain, and he ' shall go on with his education at my charge. ' " † Highly cultivated minds are often wanting in strength ; and strong minds are as often wanting in high cultivation ; so often, indeed, that in many cases the strength and the cultivation may, I fear, be deemed not only distinct but even in some degree repugnant to each other. But with Hastings, as with intellects of the highest order, they were well and happily combined. Through the long

* Bishop Heber's Journal, June 25, 1824.

† Memoirs by Gleig, vol. 2, p. 100.

course of his despatches, more especially the later ones, his graceful and flowing sentences, so sustained in their equal dignity, so devoid of mere rhetorical glitter, and despising or seeming to despise all ornaments but such as the argument itself supplies and needs, seem worthy to be, and in India have often been, a model for state-papers.

At Westminster School little Warren was in the same class with Impey, who afterwards pursued the profession of the law, and, under the Regulating Act of 1773, was sent forth as Sir Elijah, and Chief Justice, to Bengal. It was on Impey, as we shall see hereafter, that the fortunes of Hastings more than once depended. Another of his boyish playmates was the poet Cowper. It is worthy of remark — if a short digression may be here allowed me — how often great and famous houses misunderstand the true sources of their fame. Of all the long line of Hastings, from that Danish Sea King of whom they claim descent, down to that Marquis, best known perhaps as Earl of Moira, who in our own age worthily upheld their ancient name, no one has filled so large a space in the eyes of men as the first Governor-General of India. Thus also, without disparagement to an upright and accomplished Chancellor, it may be said that of all the Cowpers the author of "The Task" is the foremost; since thousands and tens of thousands who never even heard of the statesman, have delighted in the strains of the poet. Yet neither Cowper, in his secluded toils for fame, nor Hastings when battling with his rivals for the administration of an empire, appear to have received the slightest notice or token of approval from their noble kinsmen. Neither the Earl Cowper, nor yet the Earl of Huntingdon of those days, so far as can be traced, at any time expressed at Olney or at Calcutta the least desire to establish a friendly correspondence, or obtain an authentic likeness. Thus at present, as I believe, no contemporary monument of the greatest of the Cowpers is shown at Pinner. None of the greatest of the Hastings is shown at Castle Donington.

When in the year 1772 Hastings first assumed the administration of Bengal, he found the whole country weighed down by the effects of the recent famine.

depopulation. The greatest praise, perhaps, of his able rule is the simple fact that scarce any trace of these effects appears in the succeeding years. He enforced a new system in the land revenue founded on leases for five years; a system far indeed from faultless, yet the best, probably, which at that period could be framed. Under that system nearly the same amount of income was collected from the far diminished numbers with less, it would seem, of pressure than before. For the accumulating debt and financial embarrassment of the Company more than the common resources seemed to be required. These Hastings strove hard to supply, not always, as will presently be shown, by the most creditable means. At the same time, to the great and manifest advantage of the natives, he put an end to the oppressive tax or duty levied upon marriages. As one of the results of his system of revenue-collection, he established, with signal good effect, district courts for the administration of justice, and district officers to maintain the public peace. Within a few months the provinces were in a great measure cleared of the DECOITS or gangs of thieves, and other prowling marauders. These and such like measures of reform, or of public policy, were carried through by Hastings amidst numerous objections in his council and incessant calls upon his time. Thus at the close of his first half year, he writes to a familiar friend: "Here I am with arrears of months, and some of years, to bring up; with the courts of justice and offices of revenue to set a going; with the official reformation to resume and complete; . . . with the current trifles of the day, notes, letters, personal applications; every man's business of more consequence than any other, and complainants from every quarter of the province hallooing me by hundreds for justice as often as I put my head out of window, or venture abroad!"*

Among the earliest acts of Hastings, in Bengal, was one for which, right or wrong, he was in no degree responsible. It arose from the peremptory and positive demands of the Directors at home. Miran-ul-Reza Khan had now for seven years held his post as chief of

* Letter to Josias Durnell, October 1772.

Moorshedabad, as NAWA DEWAN, or chief Minister of the finances. During that time he had perhaps committed faults; he had certainly contracted enmities. But the reports against him of embezzlement and fraud in his high functions appear to have arisen mainly through the intrigues of Nuncomar, his disappointed rival. These reports, however, wrought so far on the Court of Directors, that they sent express instructions to Hastings, concurrently with his own appointment, to secure Mahomed Reza Khan, together with his family and his adherents, and to detain them in custody until his accounts should be examined. Hastings, thus at the outset of his power, could not have ventured to disobey such orders, even if his judgment disapproved them. He took his measures accordingly with promptitude and skill. Mahomed Reza Khan was seized in his bed at midnight by a battalion of Sepoys. The same measure was extended to his confederate, Schitab Roy, at that time Governor of Bahar; a chief who, in the recent wars, had fought with signal bravery upon the English side. The two prisoners were carried to Calcutta, where, after many months of postponement and delay, they were brought to trial before a Committee, over which Hastings himself presided. Nuncomar, with a vengeful sancour, such as no time could soften, no calamities subdue, appeared as the accuser of his ancient rival. But no guilt could be proved to call for any further punishment, nor even to justify the harshness already shown. Both prisoners, therefore, were acquitted and set free; Schitab Roy, moreover, being sent back to hold office in Bahar, clothed in a robe of state and mounted on a richly caparisoned elephant, as marks of honour and respect.*

Nuncomar throve as little in his hopes of ambition as in his projects of revenge. Hastings had meanwhile been effecting a complete change in the former system. It was not merely that he arrested the Minister, he abolished the office. He put an end to the scheme of double government at Moorshedabad and at Calcutta.

* See the note of Professor Wilson, correcting some errors both of fact and of date. Mill (History of India, vol. iii. p. 545. ed. 1844).

transferring to the latter city and to the servants of the Company the entire machinery of state affairs. An empty pageant only was left at the former capital, still decked with the name and honours of Nabob. That Nabob, the heir of Meer Jaffer, was now an infant. On that plea, Hastings took occasion to reduce the yearly allowance granted by the Company from 320,000*l.* to half that sum. To alleviate in some degree the disappointment that was brewing at the heart of Nuncomar, his son Rajah Goordas was appointed Treasurer of the young Prince's Household. The guardianship of the young Prince himself was bestowed not on his own mother, but on another lady of his father's Harem — the Munny Begum by title and name. This last choice afforded at a later period strong grounds for complaints and cavils against Hastings. Why it was asked in such a country, where the female sex is held in so slight esteem, select any woman for that charge — and if any, why overlook a parent's rightful claim? There was nothing in the life or character of the Munny Begum to entitle her to any especial trust: she had been a dancing girl, and as such only had attracted the favour of the old Nabob. But on the other hand it is to be observed, that her appointment when proposed by Hastings to the Members of the Council obtained from them a full and unanimous approval. They state in their Minutes on the subject: "She is said to have acquired a great ascendancy over the spirit of the Nabob being the only person of whom he stands in any kind of awe,—a circumstance highly necessary for fulfilling the chief part of her duty, in directing his education and conduct which appear to have been hitherto much neglected." There is another reason, which in the midst of the Moorsshedabad arrests, had probably still more weight with Hastings, but which he reserves for a private letter to the Secret Committee of Directors, namely that the Munny Begum was "the declared enemy" of Mahomed Reza Khan.*

* Minutes of Council July 11 1772. See also Sleight's Memoirs, the letter of Hastings to Lupton, of 24th Dec. 1772. When Hastings writes to the young Nabob, he calls the Munny Begum "the rightful head of his family," and says that "she

External affairs also claimed the early care of Hastings. Shah Alum, the Emperor, in name at least, of Hindostan, had more than once endeavoured, but in vain, to prevail upon the English to assist him in expelling the Mah-rattas. Finding that alone he could not attack these invaders of his patrimony with the smallest prospect of success, he took the opposite part, and threw himself into their arms. He was received at first with every token of respect and homage, and led back in triumph to his ancestral seat of Delhi. Soon, however, and of course, a quarrel ensued between them, when he found himself no more than a prisoner and a puppet in the hands of his new allies. They compelled him to sign an edict, transferring to them the districts of Allahabad and Corah, which had been bestowed upon him by Lord Clive. But here Hastings interposed. He determined not merely on resuming the districts of Allahabad and Corah, but on discontinuing all further yearly payments to Shah Alum. Breach of faith on this account became, at a later period, one of the charges brought against him. Yet, surely, there were some strong grounds both of justice and of policy in favour of the course which he pursued. We had wished to support the Emperor while he remained independent, or dependent only on ourselves; we might cease to support him whenever he resigned himself to our inveterate foes, and was preparing to turn our own gifts into arms against us.

The districts of Corah and Allahabad were promptly occupied by English troops. As our territory, however, stood at that time there was little or no temptation to annex them. It was computed that the expenses of maintaining them at so great a distance would exceed the utmost revenue they could bring. It was therefore the wish of Hastings to yield them for a stipulated sum to the adjacent State of Oude. He repaired to the city of Benares to confer in person with the Nabob Visier. There, in September, 1773, a treaty was agreed upon between them; the Nabob Visier undertaking to pay for the two districts the sum of fifty Lacs of Rupees.

"stands in the place of his deceased father." It is plain from thence, however strange, that the Nabob's own mother was held as an infant.

But—alas for the fair fame not only of Hastings, but of England!—another and a weightier question was then decided at Benares. The Rohillas, a tribe of Afghan blood, had earlier in that century, and as allies of the Mogul, descended into the plains of Hindostan. They had obtained for their reward that fertile country which lies between the Ganges and the mountains on the western boundary of Oude. That country bore from them the name of Rohileund. It had been earned by their services, and it was flourishing under their dominion. Of late there had sprung up a difference between them and their neighbours of Oude, with respect to some pecuniary stipulations which the Rohillas contracted and were backward to discharge. On that ground, Sujah Dowlah had a plea for war against them—a plea certainly plausible, and perhaps just. His real aim, however, was not the settlement of their account, but rather the entire subjugation of their race. He had little hope that his rabble of the plains would stand firm against the hardier offspring of the northern mountaineers. Therefore he applied to the English Governor for the aid of English bayonets; and this request came before Hastings at a time when the Bengal treasury was weighed down with heavy debts, and when nevertheless the letters from the Court of Directors were calling on him in the most earnest terms for large remittances. The Indian prince wanted soldiers, and the English chief wanted money, and on this foundation was the bargain struck between them. It was agreed that a body of the Company's troops should be sent to aid the Nabob Visier in the conquest of the Rohilla country; that the whole expense of these troops while engaged upon that service should be borne by him; and that when the object was accomplished he should pay to the English a farther sum of forty Laes of Rupees.

Not many months elapsed before these stipulations were fulfilled. In April, 1774, an English brigade under Colonel Champion invaded the Rohilla district; and in a hard-fought battle gained a decisive victory over the Rohilla troops. Exactly half a century afterwards an English Bishop, on his first Visitation of the country, found the whole scene still fresh in the memory of the people.

- It was described to him how Hafiz, the Rohilla chief, an aged warrior, with a long grey beard, remained, at last almost alone on a rising ground, in the heat of the fire, conspicuous by his splendid dress and stately horse, waving his hand, and vainly endeavouring to bring back his army to another charge; till, seeing that all was lost, he waved his hand once more, gave a shout, and galloped forwards to die, shot through and through, upon the English bayonets. The Nafob Visier applied for the body of Hafiz, that it might be cut in pieces and his grey head be carried on a pike about the country. But the English Colonel, with a nobler spirit, caused it to be wrapped in shawls and sent with due honour to his kinsmen. The other Afghan chiefs submitted, excepting only one, Fyzoola Khan, who continued his resistance, and was enabled at length to obtain some terms of peace from the Visier. Throughout this conflict, nothing could be more dastardly than the demeanour of the troops of Oude. They had slunk to the rear of the armies; they had kept aloof from the fight; and it was only after the battle was decided, that they came forward to plunder the camp, and despoil the dead and dying. Many an indignant murmur was heard from the British ranks: "We have the honour of the day, and these banditti, these robbers, are to have the profit!"* Nor was this all. The Visier and his soldiery next applied themselves to wreak their fury on the vanquished, and to lay waste with sword and fire the rich plains of Rohileund. No terms whatever had been made by Hastings for the more humane and merciful conduct of the war; and Colonel Champion, in his private letters to the Governor, might well avow his fear that, although we stood free from all participation in these cruel deeds, the mere fact of our having been silent spectators of them, would tend, in the minds of the whole Indian people, to the dishonour of the English name.

The case of Hastings as to the Rohillas—a case at the best a bad one—was farther injured by the indiscretion of his friends. Some of them afterwards pleaded for him

* Letter from Colonel Champion to Warren Hastings, April 26, 1774.

in the House of Commons, that the Rohillas were not among the native possessors of the soil in India; but only an invading tribe of foreign lineage and of recent conquest. With just indignation, Mr. Wilberforce exclaimed, "Why, what are we but the Rohillas of Bengal?"* But Hastings himself took better ground. Besides the pecuniary advantages, on which no question could exist, he had political arguments to urge in vindication of his treaty. It was of paramount importance to us to form a close alliance with Oude; and, on forming an alliance with that State, we had a full right to espouse its quarrels; nor could its frontier be made compact and defensible without the expulsion of the Rohillas, who, after all, even in their own districts, formed but a small minority of the entire population, and whose cause was in no degree supported by their Hindoo subjects. Statements of this kind, certainly specious, and even in some part true, but as certainly, I think, inadequate for vindication, had much weight at a later period with many able and upright men - as for example with Lord Grenville. But they did not even for a moment mislead the Prime Minister at the time of the transaction. "As soon" - thus, in 1786, spoke Lord North in the House of Commons - "as soon as I was apprised of the facts of the Rohilla war, I thought the conduct of Mr. Hastings highly censurable; and I sent to the Court of Directors, urging them to combine with me for his recall."†

It was at the close of the Rohilla war, in October, 1774, that there anchored in the Ganges the ship which brought from England the expected Members of the Council and the Judges of the Supreme Court. Of the three new Councillors, Francis was by far the youngest; but his more shining and ardent spirit gave him a great ascendancy over Clavering's and Monson's. He came - there is little risk in affirming - determined to find fault; ready, whatever might befall, to cavil and oppose. The

* Speech in the House of Commons, June 2, 1784.

† Parl. Hist. vol. xxvi. p. 45. In the same debate (p. 44.) Mr. W. W. Grenville "was ready to avow his opinion that he thought the war was perfectly just as well as politic." For the state of Rohilkund in 1774, see a note by Professor John Mill (Hist. vol. iii. p. 575.)

very first despatch which he and his two colleagues addressed to the Directors, is filled with complaints that sufficient respect had not been paid them; that no guard of honour had met them on the beach; that the batteries of Fort William, in their salute, instead of twenty-one guns as they expected, had fired only seventeen. The same punctilious and resentful temper attended them in their deliberations. Of the five who met in Council, the old servants of the Company, Hastings and Barwell, stood together; on the other side were arrayed, as though in military order, the General, the Colonel, and the late War-Office Clerk. Thus they formed a majority upon every question that arose; thus, from the very first they wrested the whole power of the Government and all substantial patronage from the hands of Hastings.

So eager were these gentlemen to taste the sweets of power, that Hastings found some difficulty in prevailing upon them to pause even for a single day. With scarce time to read the Minutes, with none at all to inquire or reflect, they began to act. They ordered the English brigade to march back from Rohilcund, whatever might be then the condition of that province. They recalled, with every token of disgrace, Mr. Middleton, the confidential friend of Hastings, and by him appointed the Resident in Oude. They insisted, that even the most private of Mr. Middleton's letters should be laid before them. On these points Hastings, as he was bound, was not slow in appealing to Lord North. He observes most justly, that the new Councillors, even though they might condemn the whole policy and direction of the Rohilla War, ought rather, if they desired to establish future harmony, and to maintain the credit of the government free from inconsistency, to have afforded to their Governor-General the means of receding, without fixing a mark of reprobation on his past conduct, and without wounding his personal consequence at the Court of Oude. And Hastings adds: "Had they acted on such conciliatory principles, I should, if I know my own heart, have cheerfully joined in whatever system they might afterwards have thought fit to adopt; not pretending in such a case to set my judgment against the will of the majority."

"but it was not to be expected that I should subscribe implicitly to a direct censure of myself."

In his more familiar letters, the Governor-General thus in strong colours paints the scene: "General Clavering is, I verily believe, a man of strict honour, but he brought strong prejudices with him. . . . Colonel Monson is a sensible man, but received his first impressions from Major Grant. . . . As for Francis, I shall say nothing of him." A few months later, when the animosities had darkened, Hastings writes: "The General rummages the Consultations for disputable matter with old Fowke. Colonel Monson receives, and I have been assured, descends even to solicit, accusations. Francis writes."†

Confident in their absolute majority, the three new Councillors pursued their course of rashness, or, as Hastings terms it, frenzy. On the decease of Sujah Dowlah, and the succession of his son Asaph-ul-Dowlah as Nabob Visier, they passed a preposterous vote that the treaties which had been signed with the former should be considered as personal and as having ended with his life. They unsettled for a time the whole administration, both financial and judicial, of Bengal. Still more mischievous was their meddling in the case of Bombay, then first under the recent Act reduced to a subordinate Presidency. They rebuked its Council, and they reversed its policy; and, in utter ignorance of its affairs, took new measures for entangling it in the differences of the several Mahratta chiefs. Meanwhile their power seemed so unquestionable, and their hostility to Hastings so clear, that many of his personal enemies began to brood over projects of revenge as certain of attainment. Two Englishmen of the name of Fowke came forward to charge him with corruption. The Rancee, or Princess, of Burdwan, with her adopted son, sent in a similar complaint. But foremost of all in rancour as in rank was Nuncomar. He put into the hands of Francis a paper

* Letter to Lord North, December 4, 1774.

† Letters to Mr. Palk and to Colonel Monson, December, 1774, and March 25, 1775. *Memoirs of Hastings*, vol. i. pp. 477 and 516.

containing several heavy accusations against Hastings; above all, that he had taken a bribe for dismissing without punishment Mahomed Reza Khan; and this paper was produced by Francis at the Council-Board.

Long and fierce were the discussions that ensued. The Governor-General did not shrink from the investigation of his conduct, but he insisted, and surely with perfect right, that the Members of the Council should form themselves into a Committee for that purpose, and after receiving whatever evidence they pleased, transmit it for adjudication either to the Supreme Court of Justice at Calcutta, or to the Directors at home. On the other hand the majority maintained, that even while sitting as a Council they might proceed to the trial of their chief. They desired in consequence, that Nuncomar should be called in to confront the Governor-General. "Before the question is put," says Hastings in his Minute, "I declare that I will not suffer Nuncomar to appear before the Board as my accuser. I know what belongs to the dignity and character of the first member of this administration. I will not sit at this Board in the character of a criminal. Nor do I acknowledge the members of this Board to be my judges." But the majority still persevering, the Governor-General rose, declared the meeting dissolved, and left the room with Barwell in his train. The remaining members voted that the meeting was not dissolved, named Clavering as chairman, and called in Nuncomar. He came, and according to the custom of all false accusers, spoke much upon his own integrity, and the absence of every motive save a sense of right for the charge which he had made. And he ended by producing a new letter on which to found another charge. This letter purported to come from the Munny Begum, expressing the gratitude she felt to the Governor-General for her appointment, and adding, that as a token of her gratitude she had presented him with two Lacs of Rupees. "This letter," wrote Hastings, "is a gross forgery, and I make no doubt of proving it."

In the course of the transactions, Hastings thought

himself entitled to allege, that Nuncomar, Mr. Fowke, and some others were guilty of a conspiracy against him. On this ground he began legal proceedings against them in the Supreme Court. The Judges after a long examination of the case directed Nuncomar and Fowke to give bail, and bound over the Governor-General to prosecute them.

Of a sudden, however, and only a few weeks afterwards, a more serious blow was aimed at Nuncomar by another hand. He was arrested at the suit of a native merchant named Mohun Persaud, and, like any other man accused of felony, was thrown into the common gaol. The charge against him was that he had forged a bond five years before. On that charge, the Supreme Court not then existing, he had been brought to trial before the Mayor's Court of Calcutta, but was released through the authority which at that time Hastings exerted in his favour. The suit had, therefore, been suspended, but not concluded. It was now revived before a higher and more independent tribunal, established expressly with a view to such cases; and it was revived at the very earliest lawful time after the necessary documents had been transferred to the new Court. So opportune was this prosecution for the interests of the Governor-General, and so suspicious the coincidence of time, that Hastings has ever since been suspected and arraigned as the real mover in the business. Yet, besides the presumption on his side to be drawn from the regular conduct of the suit, there is surely some weight in a fact which many writers have passed over—that in the proceedings before the Supreme Court, Hastings solemnly deposed, upon his oath, that he had never directly or indirectly countenanced or forwarded the prosecution for forgery against Nuncomar.*

The new Members of the Council showed the utmost resentment at the prosecution, but found themselves

* See the Memoirs of Sir Elijah Impey, by Mr. Hall, p. 83. ed. 1846. In that work, and in a note upon Mill by Mr. Wilson (vol. iii. p. 644.) the argument as to the regularity of the suit at the earliest opportunity will be found more fully and particularly stated.

wholly powerless to stem it. Their fierce representations to the Judges proved in vain. They could only send complimentary messages to Nuncomar in his prison, and grant additional favours to his son. The trial came on, in due time, before a Jury composed of Englishmen, when the charge of forgery was established to their entire satisfaction, and a verdict of Guilty was returned. One of the Judges, Sir Robert Chambers, the friend of Dr. Johnson, had proposed to try the prisoner on an earlier and a milder statute, inflicting no capital penalty; but Chambers is stated to have been convinced by, and most certainly he acquiesced in, the arguments against it. The sentence of death on Nuncomar was pronounced by Sir Elijah Impey as the chief and apparently with the full concurrence of his colleagues. According to the Letters Patent by which the Supreme Court was constituted, the Judges had power to grant a reprieve from execution, provided they gave the reasons, and until the King's pleasure could be known. That power of reprieve, however, they did not choose to exert on this occasion. Thus the law was left to take its course. On the 5th of August, 1775, the Rajah Nuncomar, at that time seventy years of age, and the head of the Brahmins of Bengal, was led forth to the gallows, and hanged; while Clavering and his two friends, with impotent rage, shut themselves up within their houses, and while an immense concourse of Hindoos looked on in wonder and affright.

For his share in these proceedings the Chief Justice has been arraigned even more severely than the Governor-General. It was Hastings — thus cries Burke in his ardent and sometimes overflowing zeal — it was Hastings who murdered Nuncomar by the hand of Sir Elijah Impey! The personal friendship which had subsisted between them since their schoolboy days was urged as strong presumption of a guilty compact. For this argument, as levelled at one of the Judges, it became convenient to overlook entirely the existence of the other three. Thus Impey, though but acted jointly, was arraigned alone. At length the surmises and suspicions against him assumed a more definite form. At the close of 1787 a member of the House of Commons, Sir Gilbert Elliot,

moved for his impeachment mainly on this ground. Then Sir Elijah was permitted to appear at the Bar, and to speak in his own defence. He showed, to the perfect satisfaction of by far the greater part of those who heard him, that his behaviour through the trial had been wholly free from blame. And as to the proposal of Sir Robert Chambers, — "It was a proposal," said he, "I speak positively for myself, that I should, and I believe the other Judges would, have been glad to have concurred in. . . . But that both the Statutes could stand together, and that it was optional in the Court to choose the Statute which it liked best, I thought impossible on clear principles of Law."

But this was not all. Why, asked Sir Elijah, on behalf of his colleagues and himself, why were they to be censured for not having stayed the execution? By the Letters Patent they were required to give their reasons for any respite. What reasons, then, could they have given in the case of Nuggoman? Were they to allege his high rank, his long experience, or his priestly character? These, if rightly viewed, were only aggravations of his crime. Or were they to state that his crime, as any other act of forgery or perjury, was, in the eyes of the people of Bengal, a common and a slight offence? * It might be answered, that for that very reason it was needful to make a solemn and severe example. Yet now, when dispassionately viewed, these arguments against a respite seem more specious than solid, or at least are overborne by still weightier considerations. It is a most essential principle, whenever the penalty of death is to be inflicted, that the popular feeling should keep pace with the established law, lest, instead of horror at the crime, we produce only compassion for the criminal. In the age of Impey, however, this great principle was, even in England, by no means fully acknowledged or acted upon, and by that principle, therefore, Impey must not be too rigorously tried. On the whole, so far as the denial of a respite is concerned, we may think that his decision was

* Even half a century later we find in the *Journal* of Bishop Heber, "Perjury is dreadfully common, and very little thought of." (Furcedpoor, July 26, 1844.)

erroneous, but have no grounds whatever for asserting that his motives were corrupt.

The execution of Nuncomar, although it may not have been connected with any step of Hastings, was certainly auspicious to his interests. The Hindoos could make no nice distinctions, such as the case required, between political and judicial authority. They looked only to the one broad fact that one of their chief men had stood forth to accuse the Governor-General, and that within a few weeks of his accusation that chief man had died upon the gallows. From that moment all the other natives shrank from any further charges against Hastings. From that moment, in their eyes, he recovered a large portion of his power. But it should be added, in justice to his memory, that throughout his long administration, he attracted, in a high degree, their love as well as fear. The English in India also were nearly all upon his side. Hastings, they saw, was familiar with their wants and wishes, and profoundly versed in their affairs. On the other hand they had slight confidence in either Clavering or Monson; and they had quickly taken fire against the War Office Clerk, who, in all respects ignorant of India, was yet seeking to impose upon it, with peremptory violence, every crotchet of his brain. He had not been many weeks at Calcutta ere he obtained the common surname of "King Francis," or "Francis the First."

The arrogance of Francis, both then and afterwards, was, indeed, almost boundless. It is only, as I conceive, his consciousness of the authorship of Junius that can in any degree explain, though not excuse it. How else

* A very interesting account of the demeanour and the death of Nuncomar, and of its effects upon the Hindoo population, was produced by Sir Gilbert Elliot in 1788, and printed in the Annual Register for that year (p. 177). It was said to be written by Mr. Macrabie, who was the Sheriff present at the execution, and it has been followed by nearly all the later writers. But Mr. Impey, in the Memoirs of Clavering (see p. 144., and also p. 285.), gives some strong reasons for questioning its authenticity. It was not heard of until nearly twelve years, when it was produced for a merely casual notice by the far from scrupulous hands of Philip Francis, the brother of Macrabie; and some of the particulars it states are contradicted by contemporary accounts "upon the spot."

Does it seem possible that fifteen years later, when that great man, Edmund Burke, was in the zenith of his fame, he should be addressed as follows, in a private letter from Philip Francis? — "Once for all, I wish you would let me teach you to write English." And then follows, in the same letter, a striking sentence, not inferior perhaps to any in Junius: it most felicitously applies to writings the same principle acknowledged to be true of wood and stone: — "Why will you not allow yourself to be persuaded that polish is material to preservation?" *

Another point in the character of Francis — well according with what we may presume of the author of the reply to Junius † — was his taste for profligate amours. It was from these, at a somewhat later period, that arose the personal and bitter estrangement between himself and Sir Elijah Impey. By means of a ladder of ropes, Francis had one night climbed into the chamber of Mrs. Grand, a lady of Scottish birth, the wife of a Calcutta Barrister. After he had remained there for three-quarters of an hour an alarm was given, and Francis descending in haste from the apartment of the lady was seized at the foot of the ladder by the servants of the husband. Hereupon an action was brought by Mr. Grand against Mr. Francis in the Supreme Court of Calcutta. It was usual for the Judges of that Court to assess the damages in civil actions without the intervention of a Jury. Sir Elijah Impey in this case fixed the sum to be awarded at fifty thousand rupees. Yet, in the opinion of his colleague, Sir Robert Chambers, and still more strongly, no doubt, in the opinion of Francis himself, a lesser sum would have sufficed; since, however suspicious the ladder of ropes and the nocturnal visit, no positive act of guilt was proved. Up to that time the Chief Justice and the Member of Council at Calcutta had been on civil, nay familiar terms, but from this transaction may be dated the commencement of the active and persevering

* Letter of November 3. 1790, as printed in *Burke's Correspondence*, vol. iii. p. 164.

† Of that letter Junius immediately afterwards became informed; and he desired Mr. Woodfall to throw doubt on its authenticity. (Note of Sept. 10. 1769.) It is omitted from the present editions, but will be found in the publication of 1816, vol. ii. p. 118.)

animosity with which Francis ever afterwards continued to pursue Sir Elijah Impey. Mr. Grand succeeded in obtaining a divorce, and Mrs. Grand took refuge with Francis, by whom, however, she was soon afterwards forsaken. She returned to Europe as the companion of another gentleman, Mr. William Macintosh; and, by a far more surprising turn of Fortune, closed her adventurous career as the wife of a celebrated foreign statesman, Prince Talleyrand.*

The news of the division in the Council at Calcutta appears to have greatly perplexed the Directors at home. For some time they endeavoured, but with little good effect, to hold a middle course. We find, in November, 1775, the King write as follows to Lord North: "The East India Directors in their despatch manifestly wish to hurt neither Hastings nor his adversaries, and therefore will most probably disoblige both." Lord North himself, however, was deeply impressed with the iniquity of the Rohilla war. He regretted, that under the Regulating Act there was no power, during the first five years to recall the Governor-General without an Address to that effect from the Company to the Crown. "Send us that Address"—such was his advice to his friends in the Direction; and accordingly at the annual elections in the spring of 1776, a strong effort was made. In the Court of Directors the numbers were nearly even; there were eleven votes for the recall of Hastings, and ten against it. The minority appealed to a Court of Proprietors, where the struggle was renewed. On that occasion the agent of Hastings in London, Colonel Maclean, reckoned up in some dismay the hostile force which not only "the Chairs" but the Government poured in. He saw mingling with the merchants and the City-men no less than forty-nine Peers, Privy Councillors, and men in

* *History of Sir Elijah Impey*, by his son, p. 173., and the unpublished *Memories* of Mr. Charles Macintosh, as quoted in the *Quarterly Review*, No. CLXVII. p. 70. Perhaps it may be thought that Sir Francis was guided in his view of this transaction, judged rather by the Mahomedan law, which in every such case requires the testimony of four eye-witnesses. See the *Moslem Annals*, &c. &c. (1.) and the *Decline and Fall of Gibbon*, who calls him "a man who sought peace." (Vol. ix. p. 326.)

office, at their head a Minister of the Crown, Lord Sandwich. This debate continued till near midnight. A motion for adjournment was made, and the opponents of Hastings prevailed in that division; but a Ballot on the main question being demanded for another day, the motion for his recall was negatived by a majority of upwards of one hundred.

Lord North was greatly incensed at this defeat. He let fall some angry expressions; or, at least, some such were ascribed to him by the zeal of partisans. The two Houses should be called together before Christmas; there should be another India Bill; the Calcutta government must be new modelled; the Company must be restricted to its trade. These vague threats wrought too far upon Colonel Maclean. He believed his patron in risk of a Parliamentary dismissal, or, perhaps, a Parliamentary censure. He was scared instead of being re-assured by the dangers which he had surmounted; and thought only how to shrink from the dangers to come. He had in his possession a private letter, written by Hastings a year and a half before, in which Hastings announced his resolution of resigning if he should not find his measures supported and approved. In another letter, two months afterwards, Hastings had most clearly revoked that resolution.* Nevertheless, Colonel Maclean in October, 1776, thought himself sufficiently empowered to tender to the Court of Directors the resignation of the Governor-General. The Directors, eager to be relieved from their embarrassment, made little difficulty. They accepted the resignation, and, with the connivance of the Crown, named one of their own body, Mr. Edward Wheler, to the vacant place in the Council of Bengal.

But meanwhile the state of that Council had wholly changed. In September, 1776, Colonel Monson had died. By his decease, and by the means of his own setting

* The two letters of Hastings, addressed to Colonel Monson and another agent, and dated March 27. and May 16. 1775, are published at full length by Mr. Gleig in Hastings's Memoirs. The terms of the second letter are quite explicit. "I now communicate to you separately in my letter of the 7th of March." Compare with these documents the Charge (vol. ix.), by Mr. Burke.

vote, the full powers of Government fell back into the hands of the Governor-General. With his usual fixedness of purpose, he now resumed his former policy, and reappointed his old friends. Above all, after a short delay, "Nat Middleton" (for so he fondly calls him), became once more the Resident in Oude. "The first act of my authority," said Hastings, "might justly be for the retrieval of the first wound which was given to it." Since his Five Years' Settlement of the land-revenue was now drawing to a close, he gave orders for another valuation, to be conducted solely under his own control. In spite of the strenuous opposition of Clavering and Francis, he created a new office for that object. At the same time his mind was brooding over a vast scheme for the complete ascendancy in India of the English name—a system of subsidiary alliance with native princes, and, above all, with the Nabob of Oude and the Nizam,—a system which it was left to his successors to unfold and to pursue. In all these contemplations of coming empire it is remarkable how deep and far-sighted were his views. Thus, at a time when scarce any other statesman bestowed a thought or care upon the martial race that dwelt along the banks of the Five Rivers, we find Hastings clearly discern and dread their increasing greatness. We find him in one of his Minutes refer with some anxiety to "the nation or religious sect of the Seiks," and desire some occasion "of checking the growth of a generation whose strength may become fatal to our own."

Such were the schemes that Hastings was maturing, when, in June, 1777, a packet-ship from England anchored in the Hooghly, and all Calcutta was startled with the news that the Governor-General had resigned; that his resignation was accepted; and that the government was transferred to other hands. No man was more astonished at these tidings than the Governor-General himself. He declared that Colonel Maclean had far, very far, exceeded his instructions. But he afterwards said, that perhaps he should have felt himself bound by

* Middleton, *Mem.* i. 1794. See Burke's *Articles of Charge*, No. xvii.

the acts of his agent, had not. General Clavering attempted to seize the government by force. Clavering never asked whether the offer of resignation was acknowledged as authentic. He never asked whether, — as was in fact the case, and as had been expressly stipulated with the Directors and with Lord North — the precise time for the resignation was to be left to the choice of Hastings. Without question or parley, he, in his own name, summoned a Council to which Francis came, and at which Clavering took the usual oath as Governor-General. As such also he sent his Persian interpreter to Hastings with a letter, requiring him to deliver the keys of the fort and treasury. Meanwhile, in another chamber, Hastings took the chair with Barwell by his side, and declared himself determined to maintain his just authority until further orders should arrive. "Then it was that the attachment of his countrymen stood Hastings in good stead." Had there been, as was feared, an appeal to arms, there seems little question that all, or nearly all, would have ranged themselves upon his side. Seeing this, the opposite party agreed, though unwillingly, to his proposal; that they should ask, and should abide by, the opinion of the Judges of the Supreme Court. This was no season for delay; the case being thus referred to the Judges, they met the same evening, and continued all night in anxious deliberation. At four the next morning Sir Elijah reported their unanimous judgment, that the resignation of Hastings was invalid, and the assumption of power by Clavering illegal. Thus was the Governor-General enabled to maintain his ground. On this occasion he justly felt that his all had been at stake. Writing at the time he says: "If I am gone, and Clavering in possession, they may prove what they will against me, even rape and murder." And a few years later we find him mention himself as "a man to whose support I was at one time indebted for the safety of my fortune, honour, and reputation."*

* Memoir by Gleig, vol. ii. p. 255. Mr. Gleig does not give the exact date of Clavering's first letter, but from the context it seems to have been written in the year 1780. I can find no authority to agree with those who say that it alludes to the capture of the fort.

But Hastings was not content with his success on this occasion. He endeavoured to pursue it with a degree of violence and indiscretion scarcely less than his rival had displayed. He prevailed on Barwell to concur in a Resolution that General Clavering, by attempting to usurp the functions of Governor-General, had surrendered and resigned both his place in Council and his office as Commander in Chief of the Indian forces. Against this flagrant abuse of victory Clavering and Francis remonstrated in vain. Now, in their turn, they appealed to the Judges of the Supreme Court. Sir Elijah Impey, in the name of his brethren, pronounced it as their unanimous decision, that the Council had no legal power to remove one of its members or declare his seat vacant. This salutary mediation between two vehement adverse parties—the alternate checks to the excesses of each—seem to me to do honour to Sir Elijah's impartial sense of justice, and serve to disprove the charge brought against his conduct at this juncture, as though, for some corrupt purpose of his own, he had been a mere instrument and puppet in the hands of Hastings.

In this struggle the temper of Clavering—a frank, plain soldier—had been grievously elated. Only a few weeks afterwards, in August, 1777, he sickened and died. At a later period his friend Mr. Francis thus portrays his character: “He was a strict, rigid man; not, as some thought, cruel, but rigid, even to prudery, as I have sometimes told him, when I have seen him refuse little offerings of fruit and flowers, that certainly did not come within the legal prohibition of presents.”*

It is said that the last appearance in public of the dying man was, after much solicitation, as a guest at his rival's wedding-feast. Not many days before General Clavering expired, Warren Hastings married Marian Imhoff. The first husband of this lady was a German by birth, a Baron by title, a miniature painter by profession. The two had first met them eight years before,

* Speech in the House of Commons, Feb. 26. 1788.

† “*As I have sometimes told him, when I have seen him refuse little offerings of fruit and flowers, that certainly did not come within the legal prohibition of presents.*” says Mr. Macaulay, *Essays*, vol. iii. p. 339. The precise authority for this anecdote appears to be the contemporary translator of the *Fell*, *Essays*, vol. iii. p. 476. note.)

on embarking in England for Madras, when he found some passengers with him on board the Duke of Grafton. The Baroness was in a high degree graceful and engaging; the Baron, at least in equal measure, neatly and intent on gain. Between the fair Marian and Hastings an attachment soon arose, an attachment which, like all his feelings, whether of love or hate, was calm, but deep-rooted, and most steadfast; an attachment which appears to have continued without cloud or change for well nigh fifty years. A kind of Council was held between the lady, her husband and her lover. It was agreed that advantage should be taken of the looseness of the marriage-tie in Northern Germany; that the Baroness, with the Baron's full consent, should commence a suit for a divorce in the law-courts of Franconia; that meanwhile they should continue to dwell together; and that, on obtaining the desired release, Hastings should make the Baroness his wife, adopting for his own her two children by the Baron. It may well be supposed, that in this negotiation the pecuniary interests of Imhoff himself were not forgotten. Some years elapsed before the requisite formalities could be gone through in the Franconian Courts; but at length, in the summer of 1777, the sentence of divorce reached India; the Baroness became Mrs. Hastings, and the Baron returned to Europe with wealth far greater than his skill in portrait painting could have gained.

These transactions, which may be considered as belonging only to private life, were at a later period drawn into the public scene. When Hastings himself returned to Europe, when his conduct had become the mark for Parliamentary speeches and Parliamentary impeachments, his enemies were never weary of descending on the dangerous fascinations of his wife. She was accused of receiving presents in India: she was accused of making presents in England. Her favourable reception at St.

* It appears from the letters of Goethe to Madame de Stein, as first published in 1848, that Imhoff, on his return to Europe, married one of Madame de Stein's sisters, and was often in the Weimar circles. When he died, in 1788, Goethe thus described his character, goes so far as to say: *Demüthig, ohne zu empfinden, dass er zu ihrem Glück gestorben ist.* (Goethe's Werke, 308.)

James's increased the Opposition rage. Through her it was endeavored to give an infamous blow against the consort of the Sovereign. What other ground it was malignantly asked, except some sordid interest, some share in the plundered "wealth of Ormus and of Ind," could propitiate towards the relict of Mr. Imhoff the most pure and spotless of Queens? All the satirical poems of that period teem with such attacks. * . .

In the council-chamber of Bengal the decease of General Clavering was nearly balanced by the arrival of Mr. Wheeler. The new member took part, in most cases, against the Governor-General with Francis. But, besides that he showed himself a far less acrimonious opponent, the power of the casting-vote still left on every question the practical ascendancy in the hands of Hastings.

From the supreme government of India let us pass to the subordinate-Council of Madras. There, though on a smaller scale, dissension had grown to a still more formidable height. Some years since a war had been waged against the petty kingdom of Tanjore. The Rajah, one of the Mahratta princes, had been taken prisoner and deposed. The territory had been seized and transferred to the Nabob of Arcot. At home the Directors, after no small amount of wavering, had disapproved these measures. They despatched peremptory orders to restore, without loss of time, the Rajah to his throne. Moreover, they sent out to the chief place at Madras a personal friend of the Rajah, the former Governor, Pigot, who had recently been raised to an Irish peerage. Thus from the first moment of his landing again on Indian ground, Lord Pigot found himself in direct opposition to the leading members of his Council. He did, however, proceed to restore and reinstate the Rajah. But on his return he met a formidable combination leagued against him; and Lord Mahomed Ali, the Nabob of Arcot.

* Thus, in the Eclogues:

"The French prattle holds command;

"The German phlegm at second-hand."

And in the Eclogues is invited to a description of "the iron bed which was presented to Her Majesty by Mrs. Hand."

Mahomed Ali, the old ally of the English, and maintained in his dominion by their means, had not, as was expected, fixed his residence in any of his own palaces or cities. Abandoning all appearance of state, he dwelt in a common country-house, near the suburbs of Madras. There he was ever intriguing and caballing with several of the Company's servants. They would supply him with money at any sudden call, and well knew how to make such loans most highly advantageous to themselves. Foremost among these usurers stood Mr. Paul Benfield, a man to whom Burke's eloquence has given immortal fame,—if fame indeed it should be called! For, as the misdeeds of Verres will live for ever in the glowing denunciations of Cicero, so has the genius of Burke poured its imperishable lustre over the whole tortuous track of the Madras money-lenders, and rescued from oblivion the "Debts of the Nabob of Arcot."*

Paul Benfield was of humble birth and of no patrimony. He had filled a small place in the Company's service at a salary of a few hundred pounds a year, and was chiefly conspicuous for keeping the finest carriages and horses at Madras. His ostentatious habits of expense did not seem consistent with any large accumulation of wealth. To the public surprise he now brought forward a claim on the Nabob, for money lent to the amount of 162,000*l.*, besides another claim on individuals in Tanjore to the amount of 72,000*l.* For the whole of this enormous sum he held assignments on the revenues and standing crops in Tanjore; and he pleaded that his interest ought not to be affected by the reinstatement of the Rajah. The Nabob, when consulted on the matter, at once admitted and confirmed the claim. In this case Lord Pigot might well suspect collusion. He might also reasonably question the right of the Nabob to make any such assignments in Tanjore. The majority of his Council, however, were inclined to favour these demands, and there ensued a long train of angry disputes. At length the issue was taken on a side-point of small importance—the desire of Lord Pigot to appoint Mr. Russel, one of his own friends, as Resident at Tanjore. Finding

* See his great speech in the House of Commons.

himself out-voted, Lord Pigot first set the dangerous example, so soon to recoil upon himself, of overstepping the bounds of law. He assumed that the Governor was an integral part of the Council; that he was not bound by the majority against him, and might refuse to carry out any decision in which he had not concurred. The opposite doctrine was maintained, no less vehemently, by the other members. Upon this an arbitrary order from Lord Pigot declared them suspended from their functions; and they, in return, concerted measures for his arrest. The commander of the forces, Sir Robert Fletcher (the same who, in Bengal, had been cashiered), was at that time ill; but the second in command (Colonel Stuart, was upon their side. On the 24th of August, 1776, the Colonel passed the greater part of the day in company or in business with Lord Pigot, and then arrested and dined with him as his familiar friend. As he was driving in the carriage with him when, according to the Colonel's previous orders, the carriage was surrounded and stopped by troops. His Lordship was then informed that he was their prisoner. As such he was forthwith conveyed to St Thomas's Mount. Though he was kept in an officer's house, with a battalion of artillery to guard him, while all the powers of Government were assumed and administered by his opponents in the Council.

This violent act of the Council of Madras against their Governor, produced, at a later period, a keen discussion in the House of Commons. Admiral Pigot declared, on that occasion, that his brother had been offered a bribe amounting to 600 000*l*. in English money, only to defer, and that for a short and specified time, the reinstatement of the Rajah of Junjore. On the other hand, Mr. Stratton, one of the members of the Council who had ordered the Governor's arrest, said it was a fact well known, that Lord Pigot might have had his liberty again in three days, had he chosen to accept it.

In the course of Directors and Proprietors there appeared upon this subject the usual fluctuation. There was, however, no better reason for it, in a case where beyond all doubt neither party had been free from blame.

At length it was agreed that the members of the Council who had concurred in this arrest should be recalled; and on their return they became liable, under Resolutions of the House of Commons, to a trial and a fine. At the same time a commission was prepared, under the Company's seal, by which Lord Pigot was restored to his office; but he was directed within one week to give up the Government to his successor, and embark for England. By these means it was intended to avoid a triumph, or the appearance of a triumph, to either side. But long before these orders could be received in India, Lord Pigot was beyond the reach of any human sentence. After eight months of confinement he died at St. Thomas's Mount.

Early in 1778 the government of Madras was assumed by Sir Thomas Rumbold. He might avoid dissensions with his Council, but on other grounds he incurred, and not unjustly, the censure of the Court of Directors. In less than three years we find him utterly dismissed from their service. He was accused of tyranny to the Chiefs of the Northern Circars, of injustice to the Nizam, of arrogance to Hyder Ali. Nor did even his personal character stand clear from all reproach. It was proved that, during his two years of government, he was enabled to remit to London more than three times the amount of his legal salary.* In the Session of 1782 a Bill of Pains and Penalties against him for breaches of public trust was brought in by Mr. Dundas; but ceased to attract attention, or to be actively pressed, amidst the Ministerial changes that ensued. Well might Mr. Fox observe, however: "If the Bill should be lost for want of attendance, that would not clear the character of Sir Thomas Rumbold."

* Second Report of the Committee of Secrecy, 1791. Sir Thomas alleged, in reply, that he had at the time property of his own in India; and this was proved by the evidence and accounts of his attorney, M. Price. But, on making full allowance for these, says Professor Wilson, "there still remains a considerable sum to be accounted for, to explain the large amount of the disbursements to England." (Note to Mill's Hist. vol. iv. p. 151; and *ibid.* p. 172.)

CHAPTER LXIX.

INDIA.

IN the last two chapters we have traced the progress of our Eastern empire when not assailed, nor even threatened, by any European enemy. The scene is now about to change. That war which, commencing in North America, troubled not England only but also France and Spain, cast its baleful shadows to the Mexican seas on the one side, and to the shores of Coromandel on the other. Then it was that the experience, the energy, the high statesmanship of Hastings were signally displayed. Then it was, that the value of his services was felt even by his adversaries in Downing Street or Leadenhall. Lord North, to his honour, laid aside all party resentment. As he afterwards stated in the House of Commons, he knew the abilities of Mr. Hastings, and felt that this was not the time for any change in the government of India.* Thus, when the period of Five Years fixed by the Regulating Act had expired, the Governor-General was quietly and without a struggle re-appointed.

At the beginning of 1778, the tidings were already rife among the native races, that YINGHI DUNIA, or New World, as they called America, had broken loose from the country of the COOMPANY SAHIB.† Already, might they hear the rising sounds of exultation from the rival settlements of Chandernagore and Pondicherry. But the first sign or symptom that reached Hastings of French cabals in India came from the Mahratta States. These had grown to greatness in the decline of the Mogul empire, but had since been weakened

* *Parl. Hist.* vol. xvi. p. 46.

† *Parl. Hist.* vol. iii. p. 382.

Certainly, at least, he is entitled to the praise, at a most difficult crisis, of energy and skill. The news of the disaster at Saratoga, far from damping his spirit, only animated his endeavours. "If it be really true" — thus he spoke to his Council — "that the British arms and influence have suffered so severe a check in the Western world, it is the more incumbent on those who are charged with the interests of Great Britain in the East to exert themselves for the retrieval of the national loss."* Only a few days after the Governor-General had thus spoken — only a few weeks after the British troops had marched — the further intelligence which the policy of Hastings had anticipated came. On the 7th of July, a letter from Mr. Baldwin, the Consul of England at Cairo, brought the news to Calcutta, that in the month of March preceding, war had been proclaimed both in London and in Paris. Not an hour did Hastings lose. "On the same day," he says, "we wrote to the Governor of Fort St. George, to prepare for the immediate attack of Pondicherry; and we set them an example on the 10th, by the capture of Chandernagore."†

Pondicherry was invested by Sir Hector Munro, at the head of the Madras army. It yielded, after a brave resistance, and an engagement off the coast, between the French and English squadrons. Then the French retained nothing in India but Mahé, a small fort and settlement on the coast of Malabar; and this also was reduced by the English from Madras, in the course of the ensuing spring. Meanwhile, in Bengal, the zeal of Hastings had directed the most active measures of defence. Several further batteries were raised along the river. Several armed cruizers were equipped. Stores for three months, both of ammunition and victuals, were laid up in Fort William. Nine new battalions of Sepoys were enrolled. A demand for three battalions more was made upon the Rajah of Benares, and was agreed to, the Rajah being regarded as a feudatory prince, and required to contribute

* Declaration in Council, June 22. 1774. *Parliamentary Papers*, vol. x.

† To Laurence Sullivan, Esq., August 14. 1774. *Parliamentary Papers*, vol. ii. p. 203.

his share to the burthens of the war. The artillery was reinforced by recruits from the native Lascars; while the Europeans at Calcutta, to the number of one thousand, were enrolled as Militia in case of need. "Mr. Francis" — thus writes the Governor-General to a private friend — "affects to regard our means as insufficient, our resources as already exhausted, a French invasion as impending, and the country incapable of resistance. I am, for my own part, confirmed in my opinion, that the French, if they ever attempt the invasion of Bengal, must make their way to it by an alliance with one of the powers of the country, and the only power with which that can be at present effected is the Mahratta."

To this Mahratta expedition, therefore the eyes of Hastings were anxiously turned. At first it was far from prospering. The commanding officer, Colonel Leslie, instead of pursuing his march after he had crossed the Jumna, loitered during four months without the least necessity, in the plains of Bankura. His recall was unanimously voted in the Council chamber at Calcutta, and was only anticipated by rumors of his death. His successor, Colonel Goddard was an excellent and enterprising officer. He advanced at once into Berar. But further delays ensued in consequence of successive revolutions at the Court of Poona. To wit the effects of these, orders to halt were sent to Colonel Goddard from the Council of Bombay. Perhaps, however, their real object was to clutch the expected credit for themselves, since before the close of the year they sent forth an expedition of their own. That body of troops exceeded 4000 in number; it was accompanied by Ragoba, and the principal officer who served in it was Colonel Egerton. But by a most infelicitous arrangement, the superintendence and control of the expedition was vested by the Council in a travelling Committee, or, in other words, field-commission, according to the former precedents of Holland.

On reaching the Ghauts or passes and entering the Mahratta territory, Colonel Egerton was not joined, as Ragoba had encouraged him to hope, by any chief of importance, nor by any considerable number of adherents. On the contrary, he had around him irregular troops

hostile cavalry, retiring as he advanced, but active and successful in cutting off his supplies. His own movements at this juncture were sufficiently deliberate: only eight miles in eleven days. In January, 1779, he had reached a point within sixteen miles of Poonah. There he found an army assembled to oppose him, and the Committee-men, losing courage, made up their minds to a retreat. A retreat was begun accordingly that night, and continued until the next afternoon, when, at a place called Wargaum, the English found themselves surrounded and hemmed in. One brave subaltern, Captain Hartley, offered to cut his way through, and to carry back the little army to Bombay, declaring that he could rely upon his men. His superior officers, on the other hand, deemed any such attempt chimerical, and determined to seek their safety in negotiation. The terms required for their unmolested passage were hard indeed, yet, hard though they were, could not be disputed unless by arms. It was agreed that all the acquisitions gained by the English from the Mahrattas, since the peace of 1756, should be restored. It was further agreed, that the person of Ragoba should be given up, not indeed to the Poonah chiefs, but to Scindiah.

In mitigation of this last ignominious clause we may observe that, even previously, Ragoba, seeing the ill plight of the English army, and despairing of its safe return by force of arms, had declared his own intention of surrendering himself to Scindiah, as to a mediator and umpire rather than an enemy. Already for some days had he been in correspondence with that chief. The Committee felt, therefore, the less scruple in consenting to his surrender when required as a stipulation of their treaty. Yet, in spite of some such extenuating circumstances, the convention of Wargaum may justly be regarded as the most discreditable to the arms of England ever framed since they had first appeared on Indian soil. To the English, in all three Presidencies, it seemed like a 'Saratoga in miniature.' To the French, and to the Mahrattas throughout India it gave a bolder spirit and a bolder tone. It combined, if not the whole of the empire, yet several more of the Mahratta chiefs. It revived the hopes, and disclosed the weakness, both of

the Nizam and Hyder Ali; but on the mind of the Governor-General it had no effect. As ever, that was firm and fearless. He refused to alter his plans: he refused to recall his troops. On the contrary, he at once directed Goddard to advance. General Goddard (for to that higher rank was he speedily promoted) justified the confidence of Hastings by his energy and skill. In his campaign of that year, and of the following, he, in great measure, retrieved and worthily maintained the honour of the British arms. At one time we see him reduce by storm the fort of Ahmedabad, at another time, by a siege, the city of Bassem. On another occasion he appears gaining a victory over the entire force, 40,000 strong, of Scindiah and Holkar combined. Meanwhile Ragoba had found only means to escape from the hands of Scindiah, and took shelter in Surat. Thus the advantages to the Mahrattas from the day of Wargaum proved fleeting and short-lived.

In a hilly district lying to the south of Agra, and bearing, at that time, the name of Gohud, Hastings waged war upon a smaller scale. With the Hindoo prince, or Rana, of that district he had concluded an alliance. The Rana being, in consequence, attacked by the Mahrattas, applied to his confederate in Bengal; and a small body of troops, under Captain Popham, was sent to his support. Not merely did Captain Popham, with little assistance from the Rana, clear Gohud from its invaders, but he carried the war into some of the Mahratta country; he besieged and reduced the city of Lahar; and he gained renown throughout the East when he took, by escalade, a rock-fortress which was deemed impregnable — the “castled crag” of Gwalior.*

In these and his other military measures Hastings was not left to rely upon his own unassisted judgment. At the first outbreak of the war with France the Cabinet

* The strength of this rock-fortress appears at all times to have filled the British troops with overweening confidence. So lately as 1843, we find the Resident at Gwalior report them as “vauntingly declaring that they are come out to resist the farther advance of the Government of Bengal, and to make the British force recross the Chumbul.” *Journal of Colonel Sleeman*, Dec. 25. 1843. *Gwalior Papers*, &c. &c. Four days afterwards, the great battle of Maharajpore took place, and the result was a slight misapprehension.

of London had determined to send back to the Indian service the most illustrious of its veterans; the same who had led the charge at Wandewash, and received the keys of Pondicherry. Sir Eyre Coote, invested with a two-fold rank as commander of the forces and as member of the Council, arrived at Calcutta in March 1779. He had no disposition to ally himself with Francis, or intrigue against Hastings; yet he gave nearly as much trouble to the latter as ever had Francis himself. The lapse of almost twenty years since his last successes had not been without effect, either on his body or his mind. He had become less active in his movements, and more fretful in his temper. A love of gain had grown up side by side with his love of glory; and strongly impressed with his own great merits, he was ever prone to deem himself slighted or neglected. It required constant care in Hastings to avoid or to explain away any causes of offence between them, while at the same time the Governor-General was striving to obtain for him a large increase to his allowances from the Nabob of Oude, or other less obvious quarters. These additional allowances to Sir Eyre Coote were taxed, at a later period, as additional charges against Hastings himself, although he had never sought to derive from them the smallest selfish advantage, and was only zealous—too zealous it might be—to carry out his public objects by the helpmates or by the instruments, which he had not chosen, but which a higher authority assigned him.*

Neither from Sir Eyre, nor yet from Wheeler, at this juncture, did Francis obtain more than occasional support—far distant from the constant concurrence of Clavering and Monson. He found, also, that by his unavailing course of opposition, all his humbler partisans were shut out from every share of patronage and power. At this juncture, therefore, he showed some readiness to relax in his hostility. On the other part, Hastings likewise had several strong motives to desire reconciliation. He wished to rid himself of a daily-recurring obstruction.

* See Burke's Articles of Charge, xvi. sect. 30. Before the close of 1779, we find Hastings thus writing to Sir Eyre: "My letters have been all friendly to him; his to me all full of suspicion; I know not why or for what. I bear with it as long as I can, for I know not if he abandons me." (16th Dec. 1779, ap. 242.)

He wished to release his friend Barwell, who had amassed a large fortune, and who was eager to return with him to England, but who had promised to remain in India, so long as his help was needed. Under these circumstances, early in the year 1780, an engagement was concluded, according to which Francis proposed to desist from systematic opposition, and to acquiesce in all the measures for the prosecution of the Mahratta war, while Hastings undertook to appoint Mr. Fowke, and some other adherents of Francis, to certain lucrative posts. On the faith of this agreement, and with the full consent of Hastings, Barwell embarked for Europe. But, only a few weeks afterwards, the old dissension at the Council-Board burst forth anew. The immediate cause was the expedition in Gohud. Hastings alleged that this was only a branch of his Mahratta war; Francis, on the contrary, maintained that this was a separate object, to which he was not pledged, and which he might freely oppose. The Governor-General, on this occasion, lost, or laid aside, his customary calmness, and in reply to a Minute of his rival, placed on record, in Council, the following words:—"I do not trust to Mr. Francis's promises of candour, convinced that he is incapable of it. I judge of his public conduct by his private, which I have found to be void of truth and honour." After such expressions Hastings may be justly charged with the entire blame of the scandal which ensued. When the Council broke up, Francis drew the Governor-General into another chamber, and read to him a challenge; it was accepted by Hastings, and they met on the day but one after—on the morning of the 17th of August. It was between five and six o'clock, and the sun had not yet fully risen on the sacred river and the boundless plain; but there was already the stir of life among the dusky races of Bengal. "I am ashamed," thus afterwards wrote Hastings, "to have been made an actor in this silly affair; and I declare to you, upon my honour, that such was my sense of it at the time that I was much distressed by an old woman whose curiosity prompted her to look on as a spectatress." He adds: "A scene so ridiculous, and so unworthy of the natives of this part of the world, and others of the same stamp from all

"adjacent villages to partake in the entertainment."* With surprise indeed they must have gazed. None of their own most barbaric rites—neither the zealot who rushes forward to be crushed by the car of Juggernaut, nor the widow compelled to share the funeral pile of her dead lord, nor the worshipper of Siva, deeming that he gains the favour of the idol if he sheds the blood of an innocent wayfarer—none of these, when first beheld, could have more greatly amazed the island-strangers than were the Hindoos† see two members of that Council, sent over for their governance, engage in single combat, according to certain fancied rules: each seeking, as he would explain it, not to destroy the other, but only to clear himself: each taking a careful aim at his antagonist, yet each ready, should he see that antagonist fall, to express a generous sympathy, and to staunch, to the utmost of his power, the wound which he had made.

Hastings and Francis fired at nearly the same instant; Hastings was unharmed, but Francis was shot through the side. He was conveyed to an adjacent house, where the surgeon found, that although his wound was severe, his life was not in danger. In the course of the same day Hastings sent his secretary with a message to the sick man, expressing his concern, and offering to call upon him when his health should be sufficiently restored. Francis coldly acknowledged the civility, but said, that after what had passed, the Governor-General and himself could meet only at the Council-Board. There accordingly they did meet for some weeks more; but early in the next December Francis gave up his office and returned to England. In taking that step, he did no more than fulfil an intention which, finding his influence wholly declined, he had formed even in the preceding year. At that time his position and his purpose were delineated, as follows, by his chief: "Francis is miserable; and is weak enough to declare," in a manner "much resembling a passionate woman whose hands are held to prevent her from doing mischief. He says he will go home in November, but I do not believe that his resolution is so fixed as he pretends."

* To L. Sullivan, Esq., August 20, 1779.

† Ibid., April 18, 1779.

Dissension with Francis, however fierce, was no novelty to Hastings. But during the same period he had to wage a painful warfare with a former friend—Sir Elijah Impey. In the Regulating Act of 1773 the limits between the judicial and political powers which it instituted had not been duly defined. Thus it happened, that on several points in practice the Supreme Court came to clash with the Supreme Council. Moreover, the new Judges had gone on with over-trained ideas of their rights and privileges. They would scarcely acknowledge any co-ordinate authority for which they could find no precedent in Westminster Hall. "Who"—thus on one occasion spoke Mr Justice Le Maiestre—"who are the Provincial Chief and Council of Dacca? They are no Corporation in the eye of the law. A man might as well say that he was commanded by the King of the Fairies as by the Council of Dacca; because the law knows no such body."* On these principles it happened that the most cherished customs and feelings, both of the Hindoos and of the Mussulmans, were often set at naught. It was impossible for the Governor-General to view their treatment with indifference or without an effort at redress. The consequent dissension between the Supreme Court and the Supreme Council for a long time only smouldered. At last, in the beginning of 1780, it burst into open flame. The immediate cause was the progress of a suit which had been brought against a wealthy landholder, the Rajah of Cossijurah, by Cossinaut Baboo his agent at Calcutta, when the Judge issued a writ to sequester his lands and goods. For this object an armed band, consisting of sixty men and commanded by a Serjeant of the Court, was despatched to Cossijurah. The Rajah, with a just apprehension of the terrors of the law, had already fled from his house. Nevertheless it was forcibly entered by the gang of bailiffs; nor did they even shrink from breaking open the ZENANA, or the women's chambers, ever held sacred in the East amidst the worst barbarities of war. The servants of the Rajah stood at the threshold

* Appendix to the Report of the Committee of 1781; and note to *History of India*, vol. iv. p. 317.

ready to resist, so far as they could resist, what they deemed the dishonour of their master, but some of them were wounded and the rest beaten back and overborne. Nor was this all. It was alleged by the Rajah, that not only had his Zenana been forced and his property plundered, but his place of worship also had been stripped of its ornaments, and his collection of revenue been prevented.

When these tidings reached Calcutta, the Governor-General, supported on this one occasion by his Council's unanimous assent, took, as was his duty, effectual measures of redress. A circular was issued to the landholders of Bengal explaining that, unless in certain specified cases, they owed no obedience to the mandates of the Supreme Court. Upon this, all patience and, all prudence departed from Sir Elijah Impey and his brother Judges. Even the most violent steps did not seem to them too strong. They cast into prison Mr. North Naylor, the Company's attorney, merely because, as he was bound to do, he had obeyed the orders of the Council. They caused a summons to be served on every member of the Council requiring him to appear at their bar, and to answer for his public acts. Hastings and the other members refused to obey the call. The Judges pronounced the refusal to be "a clear contempt of His Majesty's law and of his Courts." It is difficult to say to what extremities—scarcely short of civil war—this collision might have grown, had not Cossinart, no doubt on some secret inducements held out to him by the Governor-General, suddenly dropped his actions at law; thus depriving the Judges of all present materials upon which their wrath could build.

The immediate case might thus be dealt with, but a more permanent remedy was needed. With this view, the fertile brain of Hastings devised another scheme. Under the Act of 1773 there were certain judicial powers which belonged to the Supreme Council as a tribunal of appeal from some of the provincial Courts, but which the Supreme Council had neither sufficient time, nor yet sufficient knowledge, to exert. Hastings proposed that these powers should be henceforth vested in a Judge appointed by the Governor and Council, and removable at

their pleasure, and that this newly appointed Judge should be no other than the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court. Such was the scheme which, in September 1780, Hastings laid before his colleagues in the Government, and which, in spite of strenuous opposition from Francis and from Wheeler, was carried through. To Francis, who almost immediately afterwards returned to England, there only remained the spiteful satisfaction of spreading far and wide among his friends and the public at home the charge, that the Chief Justice had been bribed from a course of opposition by a new salary of 8,000*l.* a year.

It must be owned, that whenever there has been strife between two persons, and whenever that strife is ended by the one accepting from the other a post of honour and of profit, we shall seldom err in casting heavy censure on the character of one or both. In this case, however, there are several circumstances of alleviation or defence which were not known to, or not weighed by, the public at the time, but which demand the careful consideration of a later age. In the first place, there appears no inconsistency in the course pursued on this occasion by Sir Elijah Impey. His proceedings on the suit of Cossinaut were already closed. On the general question, he had struggled and protested against that portion of judicial power claimed by the members of the Supreme Council; he was bound therefore to be satisfied, when those members, of their own accord, divested themselves of that judicial power, and transferred it to judicial hands. No complaint, however slight, of his reconciliation could surely have been raised had any other judge but himself been named to the new post. Impey would have done far better to decline it, yet it does not follow, that in accepting it his motives were all of a sordid kind. In his secret letters to his nearest kindred some weeks afterwards, while adverting to the great additional labour which he had consented to discharge, he declares that he did so "in the hope that I may be able to convert these evils which, from ignorance or corruption, have hitherto been a curse, into a blessing. No pecuniary satisfaction has been offered or even mentioned to me."

* Sir Elijah Impey's brother in England, November 12, 1780.

Thus he had taken the duty without any promise of reward, although in the same private letter we find him frankly acknowledge—"but I do not imagine it is intended that my trouble is to go unrecompensed." Some weeks afterwards the Council did accordingly determine that a salary, not, as was said, of eight thousand, but of five thousand pounds a year, should be attached to the new office.* Then, however, Sir Elijah stated, that he should refuse to accept any part of this money until the opinion of the Lord Chancellor had been asked and obtained from England. There are still extant the regular vouchers of the sums paid to the Chief Justice in pursuance of the Council's order, and paid back by him to the Company's account. And in point of fact, neither then nor at any time afterwards was a single rupee of this new salary received for his own use by Sir Elijah Impey.†

The Mahratta campaign, and the altercations with Francis and with Impey, however burthensome to Hastings, were not, at this time, his only, nor yet his greatest, care. Another and more pressing danger rose in view. Hyder Ali, the mighty sovereign of Mysore, had observed with much displeasure, the British expedition to Mahé. On several lesser points also he had been most imprudently thwarted and chafed by Sir Thomas Rumbold at Madras. With his usual energy of character, he made few complaints, but actively matured his plans. He saw that the opportunity was favourable; that the English were now entangled in a difficult war with the Mahrattas, and that a French armament was soon expected on the coast of Coromandel. He drew together an army which amounted, or at least which popular terror magnified, to 90,000 men. These forces, though wild and savage, were not wholly wanting in European discipline; they had been trained, in part, by good officers from France, and

* Minutes of the Revenue Council, December 22, 1780.

† See the facts of the case, and the documents to prove it, set forth at full length in the *Memoirs of Impey*, by his son, pp. 299—229. And again, pp. 256—263. The reader should be on guard, on his guard against the writer's bias, and should infer only from the documents themselves.

they drew into the field, with competent artillerymen, one hundred pieces of artillery.

Besides these resources of skill and of experience, there were other expedients which stand in glaring contrast to the former, but which, in the opinion of the Sovereign of Mysore, were not less conducive to success. He gave orders that, in all the temples of his capital, there should be performed, with the utmost solemnity, the mysterious rite of the JERBIM. It is singular that both Hyder and his son Tippu (the one at least a nominal, and the other a zealous, Mussulman) appear to have held implicit faith in the Hindoo forms of superstition which are denoted by that word. The forms are of various kinds. Sometimes, to obtain the end which the prince desires, the Brahmins stand up to their breasts in water, beating the water with their hands, and howling forth their incantations. Sometimes, with the same view, a snake of the Cobra Capella kind is suspended by the tail from the roof of the apartment, while incense is burned at a fire kindled immediately below. In all these ceremonies, the presence of salt was deemed as unlucky as the spilling it in England.*

The Government of Madras was, almost to the last, unconscious of its danger. Early in April 1780, Sir Thomas Rumbold had sailed for England, congratulating himself, in the final Minute he recorded, that all was tranquil, and that no disturbance of the calm was to be feared. His successor, Mr. Whitehill, was a man wholly unequal to the charge. Almost the same might be said of Sir Hector Munro, the commander of the forces; for either age or climate had dealt hardly with the hero of Buxar. Thus the English chiefs were nearly taken by surprise, when, in the height of summer, the horsemen of Mysore, the vanguard of Hyder's army, came dashing down the passes that lead from their wild hills. This was the invasion which, some years afterwards

* See Colonel Walker's South of India, vol. ii. p. 254. note. Our own superstitions, as salt-spilling has, in all probability, an Eastern origin. Recalling a curious passage in Cervantes, showing that at one time in Spain it was confined to members of a single noble family—the *Don Quixote*, ch. 58. vol. vi. p. 154. ed. Paris, 1814.]

was described with so much glowing eloquence by Burke. This was the "black cloud that hung for a while on the declivities of the mountains." This was the "meracing meteor which blackened all the horizon until it suddenly burst, and poured down the whole of its contents upon the plains of the Carnatic."*

At the approach of Hyder's army, the frontier-posts, held by Sepoys, surrendered with but slight resistance; and his onward progress was marked by fire and the sword. From the summit of St. Thomas's Mount the people of Madras could see, on the horizon, columns of dark smoke ascend from the burning villages. The ladies and the children (and may we not include some gentlemen?) were filled with terror and affright. Their gay villas around the city were forsaken, while the narrow space behind the cannon of Fort St. George was thronged. In the field there were already some not wholly inconsiderable forces. Sir Hector Munro had above five thousand men, and Colonel Baillie above three. Some active and useful aid to these forces was expected from the constant ally of England, the Nabob of Arcot. A Mussulman noble, sent by that potentate, did accordingly arrive, with great ceremony, at Sir Hector's camp. He said to Munro that he was ordered, by Mahomed Ali, to attend him; but had no powers given him to procure either provisions or intelligence — the only two things needed. "As I wanted neither a valet nor a cook," says the General, "I told the gentleman I would dispense with his services!"†

Had Baillie and Munro at once combined their forces, as they might and should, it seems probable, from the much larger number of Europeans in their ranks, that they might have stood firm against all the armies of Mysore. But their torpor, or perhaps their jealousy, delayed them, and thus enabled Hyder to assail them singly, while yet only a few miles asunder. On the 10th of September the troops of Baillie were overthrown and cut to pieces. A similar fate might have befallen Munro

* Speech on the Nabob of Arcot's debts, February 1765. The first germ of this fine passage lies perhaps in the *epitaph* upon Demosthenes *περί του στεφανου*.

† Wilks's South of India, vol. II. p. 111.

had he not saved himself by a precipitate retreat towards Mount St. Thomas, first casting his artillery into the tanks, and relinquishing his baggage and stores. Thus only the walled towns remained to the English: all the open country was, or would be, Hyder's.

A swift-sailing ship, despatched for the express purpose, brought these ill tidings to Calcutta on the 23rd of the same month. On no occasion, either before or since, were the genius, the energy, the master-spirit of Hastings more signally displayed. In a single day he framed a new system of policy, renouncing his late favourite schemes, and contemplating only the altered state of public affairs. In his own words—"All my hopes of aggrandising the British name and enlarging the interests of the Company, gave instant place to the more urgent call to support the existence of both in the Carnatic; nor did I hesitate a moment to abandon my own views for such an object. The Mahratté war has been, and is yet, called mine. God knows why. I was forced into it. It began with the acts of others unknown to me. I never professed any other design but to support the Presidency or Bombay, if it had succeeded in the plans which it had formed, or to protect and save them if they failed. . . . Perhaps the war with Hyder may be, in like manner, called my war." *

On the 25th the council met. The Governor-General proposed, that a treaty not merely of peace but of alliance should be tendered to the Mahrattas, yielding the main points at issue in the war; that every soldier available in Bengal should at once be shipped off to Madras; that fifteen Lacs of Rupees should without delay be despatched to the same quarter; that Sir Eyre Coote, as alone sufficient, should be requested to assume the chief command against Mysore; and that the powers allowed to the Supreme Presidency by the Act of 1773 should be applied to the utmost, by superseing Mr. Whitehall, the new and incapable Governor of Fort St. George. Pitt Rivers, whose hatreds were as usual much stronger than his patriotism, raised his voice almost for

the last time in India to declare, that he would have sent only one half of the money and none of the troops. Nevertheless, the proposals of Hastings were carried through, and Sir Eyre Coote obeyed the honourable call to the scenes of his past glory. In the first days of November he landed at Madras. No sooner had he taken his seat in Council, than he produced the document from Hastings suspending Mr. Whitehill. That gentleman, though taken by surprise, attempted some faint demur, but, the majority of the Council acquiescing, he was compelled to retire, and the member next in seniority succeeded to the Chair.

Hyder Ali, since his great successes over Baillie and Munro, had reduced the fort of Arcot, and was besieging Wandewash and Vellore. But the arrival of the new commander and of the reinforcements from Bengal struck his mind with awe. He raised the siege of both places when, in January 1781, he saw Coote take the field, though still with most scanty forces and inadequate supplies. Sir Eyre, apprehensive of a rising among the French so lately subdued, next marched south and encamped on the Red Hills of Pondicherry. Later in the season he advanced to Porto Novo, a haven some forty miles further to the southward. There, on the 1st of July, he succeeded in bringing Hyder to a battle. He had only between eight and nine thousand men to oppose to the myriads of Mysore. Yet such was the ascendancy of European valour and European skill, that after six hours of conflict Hyder's forces fled in utter disarray, leaving on the field several thousand dead and wounded, while upon the side of the English the loss scarcely exceeded four hundred men.

Hyder himself had watched the progress of the battle from a small eminence, seated cross-legged on a stool. Amazed at his own reverses, he could scarce believe his eyes; and when some of his followers suggested that it was time to move, he answered them only by a torrent of abuse. At last, a groom who had long served him and was, in some sort, a privileged man, boldly seized his master's feet and forced on his slippers; and, having thus equipped him for flight: "We will leave them to-morrow; in the meanwhile mount your horse." Hyder

however, the Nabob of Oude, who, in 1764, yielded to them, all his power, since that time Cheyte Sing, transmitted his tribute to the British, and, that beyond the exchange, Cheyte Sing owed nothing to the British. Hastings held, in what he considered a strong position, in the preceding year, when he fell back to Pollilore. There, on the 27th of August, he was defeated in another battle with Sir Eyre. In this battle, to which a neighbouring village gave its name of Pollilore, the ground was so unfavourable to the English, that Sir Hector Munro, who commanded the first line, could not forbear a remonstrance to his chief. "You talk to me, Sir, when you should be doing your duty!" — such was the stern reproof, a reply which, rankling in the mind of Munro, cleared him to retire from active service to Madras, and thence next year to England.* The results of Pollilore are far less decisive, and purchased by much blood than those of Porto Novo; yet still, at that time, the flight of Hyder from his chosen ground did as much, undoubtedly, both the honour and the advantage of the day. The open country was recovered; and the Carnatic was saved.

From Calcutta the Governor-General had lost no time in commencing a negotiation for peace with the Marhattas. But this was long protracted by the number of their chiefs, and the intricacy of the relations between them; and it was not till the spring of 1782 that the treaties were finally concluded at Salbye. Meanwhile, the entire strain of the war, both with Poonah and Mysore, fell upon the Presidency of Bengal, from which, nevertheless, large remittances were still expected by the Directors and Proprietors at home. Under these pressing circumstances, Hastings was compelled to seek new

* Sir Hector survived till 1806, dying quietly at his seat in Rosshire. (Add. MS. for that year, p. 366.) Some years before, his son, a young officer, serving in Bengal, was killed by a Royal tiger, "which," says an eye-witness, "rushed into the jungle with him, 'with as much ease as a kitten!' " (Ibid. 1793, p. 31.)

the last time in India to declare, the only one half of the money and Nevertheless, the proposals of through, and Sir Eyre Coote ob the scenes of his past glory. Remember he landed at Madras. an eat in Council, than he procees a suspending Mr. Whit aid centre a. by surp everywhere, ed as the Ganges, the deemed more holy at Benares than at any other portion of its course. Every man, say the Brahmins, who dies in the sacred city, and is cast into the sacred stream, is sure of acceptance on high — even though he may have committed enormous crimes, and even though he may have been an eater of beef! The only other requisite condition is, that he should be bountiful “to the poor Brahmins.” Long flights of steps, ever crowded with pious bathers, are here seen, downward succession to the stream. Here, the temple are many and magnificent. From each of these, next rdant strains of music, such as the Hindoos love, r of Por. The bulls devoted to Siva, tame and familiar as of Porto N, walk lazily up and down the narrow streets. Porto N keys, sacred to Hun- imaun, that divine ape who, ing I Brahmins assure us, was the conqueror of Ceylon, are not less numerous, clinging to all the roofs and little projections of the temples, thrusting, as they chatter, their heads and hands into every fruiterer's shop, or snatching the food from the children at their meals. Ifideous acts and attitudes of penance are displayed on every side by religious mendicants disfigured alike by nature and by skill, — by chalk, — by cow-dung, — by disease, — while, on the contrary, a never-failing income is derived from the concourse and the charity of the wealthier pilgrims.*

The city and district of Benares formed a small state, ruled by a Hindoo prince, but tributary to the Mussul-

* Bishop Heber's Diary (vol. i. pp. 371—400. ed. 1838) contains a most animated and picturesque description of Benares, from which the particulars of mine are drawn. As he passed through the holy places, the Bishop complains of the vast number of garlands which in compliment were hung around his neck. “such a load,” he says, “I looked more like a sacrifice than a Prince!”

mans of Oude. In 1774, however, the Nabob of Oude, in a treaty with the English, yielded to them all his rights upon Benares; and since that time Cheyte Sing, the Rajah, had punctually transmitted his tribute to Calcutta. It has been contended, that beyond the exact payment of this stipulated sum Cheyte Sing owed nothing to the English. On the contrary, Hastings held, that the Company, like other suzerains, might, in extraordinary perils, claim from its vassals some extraordinary aid. At the outbreak of the Mahratta war in 1778, I have already shown how the Governor-General exacted from Benares three new battalions of Sepoys. The first demand was only for one year, but as the war went on it was annually renewed. Cheyte Sing murmured and remonstrated in vain. At last, according to the fashion of the East, he thought to put an end to further requisitions by offering to Hastings for his own use a present of two Lacs of Rupees. The conduct of Hastings in this transaction is not quite clear. He took the money, and for a time concealed it both from the Bengal Council and from the Directors at home. After some interval, however, he placed it to the Company's account, and sternly intimated to the Rajah, that the five Lacs required for the Sepoys must be paid as before—adding shortly afterwards one Lac more as a fine for evasion and delay.*

In referring to this case, it should be borne in mind that Cheyte Sing was known to be rich, and supposed to be ill-affected. Notwithstanding all his pleas of poverty, he had certainly amassed considerable treasure. He had done his best to foment and aggravate the dissensions in the Council in the time of Clavering; and at that time showed a disposition to take part against Hastings. It

* The points against Hastings in this affair are wrought out in full relief by Burke in his Articles of Charge (iii. and viii.), and the explanations by Hastings himself (in 1782 and 1785) can scarcely be thought conclusive. But great attention is due to the judgment passed by Professor Wilson in his Notes upon Mill (vol. iv. p. 373.): "It appeared to witnesses, that Hastings communicated all the circumstances relating to this present to the Accountant-General who received the money." It is undeniable, therefore, that Hastings "never intended to appropriate this money to his own use" (See the Minutes of the Council, 1782, 1787.).

may be, without want of charity, presumed that, besides the public exigencies, Hastings was likewise in some measure swayed by a feeling of revenge. New demands upon Cheyte Sing were now poured in so thick and fast as to show a predetermination of driving him to refusal and resistance, and thence to ruin. The Rajah, at last, seriously alarmed, tendered as a peace-offering the sum of 200,000*l*. But Hastings declared that he would be content with nothing short of half a million.

Such was the critical state to which this question had grown in the summer of 1781. Then, the designs of Hastings upon Benares, as also some others which he had in view for Oude, seemed to need his personal presence and direction. Besides himself, there was remaining only one member of the Council, Mr. Wheler. That gentleman was prevailed upon to delegate his authority to his chief; and thus armed with the full powers of the Council, the Governor-General set out for the north-western provinces. He travelled with little of pomp or state, and even beyond the frontier with only a few score of Sepoys. Indeed, it well deserves attention, that the greatest of the English in India — the rulers whose sway over the minds of the natives has been strongest — did not resort to, or rely upon, those pageantries in which the natives are supposed to take delight. There is a remarkable testimony to that effect, as to both Clive and Hastings, from a Frenchman by birth, and a Mussulman by adoption, who had resided in India during a long course of years. He states, that he well remembers, in 1755, the magnificence of M. de Bussy and the other French chiefs in the Deccan. He states, that Bussy always wore a dress of rich brocade, with embroidered hat and shoes; his table, always in plate, was served with three, often, with four courses; he sat upon a kind of throne, with the arms of his King in relief; and, whenever he stirred from home, he was mounted on an elephant, preceded by a band of musicians, singing his feats of chivalry, and followed by two head-chobdars, reciting his eulogium! On the contrary, continues the Frenchman, "Colonel Clive always wore his regimentals in the field, was always on horseback, and never in a palanquin; he had a plentiful table, but not very delicate,

"and never more than two courses. He used to march mostly at the head of the column, with his aides-de-camp, or was hunting at the right and left. Governor Hastings always wore a plain coat of English broad-cloth; and never anything like lace or embroidery. His whole retinue, a dozen of horse-guards; his throne a plain chair of mahogany, with plenty of such thrones in the hall; his table sometimes neglected; his diet sparing and always abstemious; his address and deportment very distant from pride and still more so from familiarity."*

The Governor-General arrived at Benares on the 14th of August, 1781. Cheyte Sing had gone forth many miles to meet him, with every mark of honour, and with the humblest professions of respect. Nay, on entering the Governor's pinnace, he even took off his turban and laid it on the lap of Hastings—a symbol to denote his unlimited submission. Hastings, with whom mere forms had little weight, received all these compliments with coldness. He sternly refused a visit from the Rajah in Benares, and next morning sent to him the Resident, with a paper of complaints and demands. These Cheyte Sing attempted to explain or evade. Without further parley, Hastings put him under arrest, sending two companies of Sepoys to guard him as a prisoner in his palace.

"The Rajah"—such was the report of the English Resident to Hastings—"submitted quietly to the arrest; and assured me that, whatever were your orders, he was ready to obey." But not such were the feelings of his people. It was no light thing for an European chief to seize the person of a Hindoo Prince in the very sanctuary and stronghold of the Hindoo superstitions. The multitude gathered in the streets, confident in their growing numbers. They might also expect some aid from the holy bulls, or the not less holy apes, that they saw around them. From outcries and threats, they quickly passed to blows. By a strange neglect the two companies of Sepoys round the palace had come without ammunition.

* Note by the translator of the *Seir Mutakhareen*, vol. ii. p. 150. ed. Calcutta, 1780.

consequently they were soon overpowered. Two other companies sent for their support were surrounded and cut to pieces in the narrow alleys. Hastings had then left, for his own protection, no more than fifty men. With these he barricaded the house in which he had taken up his residence, but could not, long together, have maintained it against a mob which he describes as "about two thousand, furious and daring from the easy success of their last attempt."—"Cheyte Sing," he adds, in a more private letter, "had me at his mercy at Benares if the wretch had known his advantage."*

Happily for Hastings, the thought which at this time was uppermost in Cheyte Sing's mind was not for victory or vengeance, but only for escape. In the midst of the confusion, he made his way from his palace by a secret postern, which opened to the Ganges. The bank was precipitous, but he was let down, as from a wall, by a line of his attendants' turbans tied together; and, finding a boat, was rowed over to the opposite shore. There he was quickly joined by his principal adherents from the city of Benares, and he began to muster troops. Still, however, it was mainly to a reconciliation that his wishes turned. He addressed to the Governor-General a petition, abounding with apologies for the past, and offers of allegiance for the future.

Through all the storm that raged around him the equable mind of Hastings was never for a moment stirred. So far from making any concession to Cheyte Sing, he did not even vouchsafe him a reply. He carefully refrained from spreading any superfluous alarm by his communications either with Bengal or Oude. Yet his pen was not idle. He wrote to the nearest officers within the British territory to require aid. He wrote to Mrs. Hastings, whom he had left at Monghir, to inform her of his safety. And lastly—with the same perfect calmness and self-command as when seated quietly in his chamber at Calcutta, or beneath his garden-trees at Allipore—he wrote to the agent charged to treat with the Mahratta chiefs, giving him such detailed instructions as by the last advices that negotiation needed. The news convey-

* To Major Scott, January 1, 1782. *Memorial of Hastings*, vol. ii.

ance of these letters was now no easy task; but here again the fertile mind of Hastings was ready with a scheme. Having reduced them to the smallest compass, and rolled them into pieces of quill, he intrusted them to some well-tried HIRCARRAHS, or Hindoo messengers, who, by his orders, taking out their ear-rings, concealed them in their ears. Thus did these men pass safely and without detection through the hostile throng.

Meanwhile, although the chief part of the insurgents had left Benares, and joining the prince beyond the river, the position of Hastings in the city continued full of peril. Not only was the insurrection general through the district of Benares; it was spreading through great part of the misgoverned state of Oude, it was threatening even the British province of Bahar. New passions began to ferment, and new hopes to rise. Cheyte Sing himself, instead of further pleas for mercy, was beginning to dream of conquest and revenge. Hastings and his small band, even though reinforced by some recruits, and by the boatmen who had brought them to Benares, could no longer hope to maintain themselves as a mere vanguard in the midst of foes.* He set forth from the city by night, yet not unobserved, the rabble hooting him as he rode along with a jingling rhyme, not yet forgotten in Benares.* Unassailed, however, on this occasion, except in words, he made his way successfully to the rock-fortress of Chunar. There he was quickly joined by a protecting force; at its head the brave and enterprising Major Popham, the conqueror of Gualior. Against such troops, and such a chief, the rabble of Cheyte Sing, now swelled to forty thousand, could not stand. The Hindoo

* *Har' hee pur howdah, ghore pur jcen*

* *Juldee bah'r jata Salub Warren Hysteen!*"

* *Horse, elephant, howd'gh, set off at full speed,*

* *"Ride away my Lord Warren Hastings!"*

"It is a ~~well-known~~ rhyme which is often sung to children (at Benares), says Bishop Heber. (Journals, vol. 1, p. 438. ed. 1824.) Both the Bishop and another eminent writer of our own day appear to be in error, when they consider this a song in praise of Hastings instead of a ~~lament~~ over him. See a note to Impey's Memoirs of Sir Elijah." ~~Edwards~~

prince was utterly routed and driven from his states. One of his kinsmen was in his stead named Rajah of Benares, but his yearly tribute was raised to forty Laes of Rupees, and he became on all points a mere stipendiary and subject of the English, soon to be removed, as he had been appointed, by their sovereign will. Nothing was left to Cheyte Sing beyond the fortress of Bidgegur, which held his treasure, and which the princess his mother defended. After a siege of several weeks the place was reduced by Major Popham. The treasure — after all Cheyte Sing's pleas of utter poverty, at the commencement of the contest — was found to exceed in value 250,000*l*. But it did not, as Hastings hoped, go to replenish the coffers of Bengal; it was seized by the army as prize. The fault here lay mainly in the Governor-General himself; in his own hasty letters and own inconsiderate expressions, during the heat of the siege.

On reviewing the whole of this transaction, which in the impeachment of Hastings formed the great Benares charge, we find its real facts utterly distorted by the ardour of both sides. While Fox and Burke, in urging it, allege the vilest motives and most heinous crimes, not even the shadow of an indiscretion is allowed by Mr. Nicholls, or by Major Seott. Between the two extreme parties, thus fiercely warring upon Indian affairs, there arose a great Minister, free from any party-trammels with either. The judgment of Mr. Pitt, expressed, for the first time, in his speech of June, 1786, was formed, as he states, after a long and laborious study of the question. On nearly all points he approved the course of Hastings. He maintained that the Governor-General was entitled to consider Cheyte Sing as a feudatory prince, and to call upon him for extraordinary aid. He maintained that Cheyte Sing had shown contumacy in refusing such aid; and that, in punishment of his contumacy, Hastings had good right to impose on him a fine. "But," continued Mr. Pitt, "in fining the Rajah 500,000*l*. for a mere delay to pay 50,000*l*., which 50,000*l*. he had actually paid, Mr. Hastings proceeded in an arbitrary, tyrannical manner, and was not guided by any principle of reason and justice. This proceeding destroyed all relation and connection between the charge of guilt

"and punishment; that punishment was utterly disproportionate and shamefully exorbitant."* These weighty words did not merely at that time prevail — did not merely, then, in fact, decide the great question of the day — Impeachment or no Impeachment; but they are now, as I conceive, confirmed and ratified by the voice of History. It is on that point, and that point alone, in the Benares Charge, the exorbitancy of the fine, that the voice of History may pronounce Hastings to have erred, no doubt led astray by his personal resentment and rancour against Cheyte Sing. An objection has indeed been raised to Mr. Pitt's discriminating censure, as though it were not adequate to support a vote of condemnation, since the question of a larger or a lesser fine can be no more than a difference in degree. Yet what is it but a difference in degree, that with children, for example, separates the chastisement which the legislator praises from that which he is bound to punish — the chastisement which aims at correction from the chastisement tending to maim and to deform? Not far dissimilar, surely, is the relation of a liege-lord to his vassals, where the duty of protection goes side by side with the right of control.

If Hastings could have felt remorse — a feeling almost alien from his nature — he might have felt it when he found his aim in all this violence, the treasure at Bidgegur, diverted by his soldiers from the public uses which he had designed. But he only turned with the keener energy to his projects upon Oude. We have seen how, in 1775, Sujah Dowlah was succeeded, as Nabob and Visier, by his son Asaph ul Dowlah. One of the first acts of the new prince was to remove the seat of his government from Fyzabad to the rising city of Lucknow.† There remained, however, as sojourners in the palace of Fyzabad, the grandmother of the young Sovereign, and also his mother, the widow of Sujah Dowlah. These aged ladies were called the Begums or princesses of Oude.‡

* Parl. Hist. vol. xxvi. p. 191.

† Hamilton's *India Gazetteer*, vol. ii. p. 132.

‡ "*Begum* is a title of Turkish origin and the feminine of *Be*, "which signifies *lord*, both in Tartary and Turkey, but means *no* more than a *lord*, both in Persia and in India." (Note to the *Seir Mutaal*.)

They had kept possession of Sujah Dowlah's treasure, amounting, it was said, to upwards of 8,000,000*l*. They had also vast Jaghires, and maintained a princely state. On the other hand, Asaph ul Dowlah showed himself so careless and so prodigal, that he soon grew poor. Wholly given up to the most disgraceful vices, and lavishing his own Crown lands upon his minions, he neglected the welfare and aroused the resentment of his people. To secure himself from the effects of that resentment, and of his neighbours' warlike enterprises, he had asked the help of a British brigade. It had been most readily granted by Hastings, who foresaw that it would reduce him to the rank of a dependent prince, and who added the condition that the Visier should defray its entire cost and charge. Under these circumstances, it was not long before the Visier's payments fell into arrear. He earnestly pleaded for the withdrawal of the troops or for the remission of the money, at the very time when the Governor-General was bending his whole thoughts on the possible means of obtaining some further aid.

On planning his north-western journey, Hastings had determined that as soon as he had closed the affairs of Benares, he would take in hand those of Oude, and repair in person to Lucknow. His visit was anticipated by the eagerness of Asaph ul Dowlah, who came forth beyond the frontier to meet him. The Governor-General and the Visier passed several days together in the rock-fortress of Chunar. There it was that Hastings first unfolded his grand scheme for the relief of both. He proposed that Asaph ul Dowlah should resume the domains which he had improvidently granted, and also those which his father had bequeathed. But it was not merely in this manner that the Begums were to be despoiled. Another part of the scheme was to wring from them the larger portion of their treasure, the money thus accruing to be accepted by the English in liquidation of the arrears which they claimed from Oude.

In this plan of Hastings for despoiling the princesses he had not even the merit of original invention. The idea was so simple and easy, that it had long since occurred, without prompting, to the mind of the Visier. He had at various times obtained from his father and his brothers sums amounting to 6,000,000*l*. The last

of these payments they had struggled to the utmost of their power. Nor did they yield until the Visier at last agreed to a treaty pledging himself on no account or pretence to make any further demand upon them; and to this treaty they had obtained the guarantee of the Council of Bengal, through the ascendancy at that time, of Clavering and Monson, and contrary to the wish of Hastings. Thus, then, the faith of the English Government was clearly pledged against the very course which an English Governor was attempting to pursue.

Let it not be thought, however, that Hastings wanted (did ever an oppressor want?) pleas for his oppression. First he might allege, with some show of reason, that according to the Mahomedan law, the treasure of the late Visier belonged, of right, not to the widow, but to the son. Next he might point to the depositions of numerous witnesses, that upon the news of the outbreak in Benares some retainers of the two Begums had stirred up insurrection in Oude. It so happened that Sir Elijah Impey was at this very time engaged in a tour through the upper provinces — a tour which he had undertaken partly for recreation and health, and partly, as was his duty, to inspect the local courts. He now offered Hastings to proceed to Lucknow, and receive the depositions of these witnesses in regular form. The offer was gladly accepted, and the depositions were accordingly received. From these it might, perhaps, be clear that some of the Begums' people had been concerned in the late disturbance; but there was no proof whatever to show that they had acted by the order, or even with the knowledge, of the aged ladies. Above all it is to be borne in mind that no opportunity was ever allowed the princesses to be heard in their own defence. Yet it was upon such wholly one-sided testimony that Hastings mainly relied for his own justification. "Let this," he wrote to a friend in London, "let this be an answer to the men of virtue who may exclaim against our breach of faith, and the inhumanity of dealing with widows, princesses of high birth, and defenceless old women — These old women had very high claims on our destruction." * * *

It was in September, 1781, that the Governor-General and the Visier signed a treaty at Chunar, according to the terms which the former had proposed. Then they parted. Hastings followed in the train of his victorious troops to Benares, and from thence returned to Bengal, while Asaph ul Dowlah wended back his way to Oude. With the assistance of Mr. Middleton, the English Resident at his Court, he prepared to carry into effect his stipulations. But, in resuming the grants of land, he had to encounter the most vehement remonstrances, both from his mother and his minions. His heart was moved by some touch of pity or of shame. Even Mr. Middleton, though the devoted friend, or, to speak more truly perhaps, the humble servant, of the Governor-General, faltered at the long course of exaction that lay before him. Hastings alone was, as ever, unbending, cold, and hard. He sternly reminded the Visier of their plighted compact. He bade, in the most peremptory terms, the Resident proceed on his instructions. "If you," he added, "cannot rely on your own firmness, I will free you from these charges; I will myself proceed to Lucknow; I will myself undertake them."*

Thus spurred on, both the Visier and the Resident, though wincing, began to move. The Jaghires of the two princesses were forcibly resumed. The city and palace of Fyzabad, in which they dwelt, were surrounded and reduced by a body of British troops. Still, however, the Begums would not part with any portion of their hidden treasure. The difficulty was how to discover or lay hands upon it without profaning, as the races of the East conceive, the sacred bounds of the *Zennas*. It was resolved to arrest and confine two aged Eunuchs, the heads of the household, and the principal Ministers of the princesses. These men were cast into prison, and loaded with irons; and, on finding them obdurate, an order was issued in January, 1782, that until they yielded they should be debarred from all food. This order, to the shame and opprobrium not only of himself and his employer, but even of the English name in India, bore

* Letter, December 25. 1781. *Barker's Annals*, Chap. IV.

the signature—*I am pained to own it*—of Nathaniel Middleton:

For the pangs of hunger the aged Ministers gave way, and within two days agreed to disburse the sum which was then required. But that sum was only a part of the whole demand. To extort the rest other most rigorous measures were employed. The two prisoners were removed from Fyzabad to Lucknow. The weight of their irons was increased; torture was threatened, and perhaps inflicted; certain it is, at least, that every facility was granted by the British Assistant Resident to the officers of the Visier, who were sent for that purpose to the prison-house. Meanwhile at Fyzabad the palace-gates of the princesses continued to be strictly guarded. Food was allowed to enter, but not always in sufficient quantities for the number of the inmates, so that the Begums might be wrought upon by the distress of their attendants. "The melancholy cries of famine," says a British officer upon the spot, "are more easily imagined than described." Thus, through the greater part of 1782, severity followed severity, and sum was exacted after sum. The Ministers were not set free, nor the princesses relieved from duress until after there had been obtained from them treasure exceeding in amount one million sterling. Notwithstanding all their pleas of poverty—pleas perfectly justifiable in the face of such oppression—there was still remaining in their hands property to the value of at least one million more.

It has been urged, yet surely without good reason, that for these acts of barbarity the Visier upon the spot, rather than the Governor-General at a distance, should be held responsible. It has also been contended, that they were no necessary consequence of the original scheme as framed at Chunar, for despoiling the Dowagers of Oude. And, as regards that scheme, the later apologists of Hastings, discarding for the most part the flimsy pretexts which he put forward at the time, prefer to take their stand on the broad ground that large supplies of money were absolutely needed for the prosecution of the war; and that we should have lost India if we had not plundered the Begums. Certainly, in one respect at least, Hastings may deserve to be far distinguished above

the long line of robber-magistrates in story — from Verres the prætor, down to Monsieur Rapinat.* He plundered for the benefit of the State, and not for his own. His main thought was ever, that he had a great empire to save — and he did save it. Yet, with all due appreciation of his object, and with all due allowance for his difficulties, his conduct to the princesses of Olde appears to me incapable of any valid vindication, and must be condemned as alike repugnant to the principles of justice and humanity.

Rumours of abuses in India — of wrangling Councils, rapacious Governors, unjust judges, and unnecessary wars — had for some time past already crossed the seas to England. Lord North, sore pressed on other questions, had no motive for resisting, and did not resist, inquiry upon these. In the course of 1781, he agreed to or proposed the appointment of two Committees of the House of Commons; the one "Select," to consider the state of the administration of justice in Bengal; the other "Secret," to investigate the causes of the war in the Carnatic. The first Committee had for Chairman General Richard Smith, a member of the Opposition; and among its most zealous and untiring members was Edmund Burke. The second, on the contrary, was presided over by a member of the Government — Henry Dundas, at that time Lord Advocate of Scotland. Each Committee presented several able Reports, and collected a great mass of important evidence. Neither Committee showed any tenderness to Hastings. All the worst points in his administration, and, above all, his war with the Rohillas, were unsparingly dragged to light. Impey also was severely censured for his acceptance of the new judicial

* Of Rapinat, who was Commissioner of the Directory in Switzerland, it is said by M. Michaud in the *Supplement to the Biog. Univ.*: "Il dut une grande célébrité beaucoup plus à la bizarrerie de son nom qu'à ses déprédations, qui au fond ne furent pas plus considérables que celles de tant d'autres." Here is one of the epigrams against him, which may at least deserve to be ranked with the hog's-broth quibble—the *Jus Verrinum*—of Cicero:

"Un pauvre Suisse que l'on rapine

"Desire fort qu'on explique

"Si Rapinat vient de rapiner

"Qu bien rapiné de Rapinat."

office created by the Council of Bengal. The case of both of these high functionaries was brought before the House of Commons at nearly the same time, but, as will presently be seen, with very different results.

In May, 1782, General Smith moved an Address to the King, praying that His Majesty would recall Sir Elijah Impey "to answer to the charge of having accepted "an office granted by, and tenable at the pleasure of, "the servants of the East India Company, which has a "tendency to create a dependence in the Supreme Court "of Judicature upon those over whose actions the said "Court was intended as a control." This Address appears to have been carried without either division or debate. In the July following Sir Elijah was accordingly summoned home by a letter from the Secretary of State, Lord Shelburne. He returned to England, but several years elapsed before that or any other charge against him came to be publicly preferred.

In April, 1782, the main results of the knowledge gathered in the Secret Committee upon Indian wars and Indian policy were unfolded to the House by Mr. Dundas in a lucid and most able speech of three hours. It was then, perhaps, more than on any previous occasion, that he fully showed or saw acknowledged the mastery of debate which he so long retained. A few weeks later he moved a more specific Resolution against Hastings, purporting that it was the duty of the Court of Directors to remove the Governor-General, he "having, in sundry "instances, acted in a manner repugnant to the honour "and policy of this nation." The Rockingham Ministry, urged forward by the fiery vehemence of Burke, gave their support to this Resolution; and no other considerable party in Parliament opposed it. The Court of Directors also, in compliance with its terms, soon afterwards voted an Order of Recall. But when in the October following that Order of Recall came before the Court of Proprietors, the scene was wholly changed. A large majority of the Proprietors showed themselves the steady friends of Hastings. They observed that the wish of one of the branches of the Legislature had no claim on their obedience; and that the law, as it then stood, gave the right of removing a Governor-General.

not to the House of Commons, nor yet to the Ministers of the Crown, but solely to the Court of Directors, subject to their own control. Under these circumstances — deeming the abilities of Hastings essential to the administration of affairs in India — encouraged also in their views on seeing that since the Parliamentary proceedings Lord Rockingham had died, and Burke seceded from office — they resolutely rescinded the Order of Recall. They were the better able to pursue an independent course on this occasion, since in 1781 Lord North had passed an Act extending their Constitutional powers for a period of ten years.

Thus was Hastings upheld at his post; thus might his energies still maintain the varying fortunes of the war in the Carnatic. To that war he continued to apply most strenuously all the men and all the money he could raise. His public-spirited endeavours were well seconded by those of the new Governor of Fort St. George, Lord Macartney, who had gained some reputation by negotiating a treaty of commerce with Russia, and who mainly on that ground had been appointed to Madras. Lord Macartney brought out from England the news of the Declaration of War against the Dutch; and it became one of his first objects to reduce the settlements which they possessed on the coasts of Coromandel and Ceylon. But he found unexpected difficulties from the failing health and froward temper of Sir Eyre Coote. That brave old veteran, suffering about this very time from a stroke of palsy, was ever imagining that he was insulted, and declaring that he would resign. It was requisite — thus wrote Lord Macartney at the time — “to court him like a mistress and to humour him like a child.” Hopeless of co-operation from the General in chief, the Governor resolved to act on his own resources. He called out the Militia of Madras, and, putting himself at their head, reduced the Dutch factories, at Sadras and Pulicat. Next he fitted out a more considerable expedition against the more important settlement of Negapatam; and he prevailed upon Sir Hector Munro to accept the command, Sir Hector being then on ill terms with Sir Eyre, and waiting at Madras for a passage to England. In November, 1781, Negapatam was accordingly besieged and

taken, several thousand Dutch troops, after a resolute resistance, being made prisoners on this occasion. Inspired by that exploit, a body of 500 men was put on board the fleet, and sent to the attack of Fort Ostenburg and Trincomalee, in the island of Ceylon. This service, also, was no less successfully performed, but was much more than counterbalanced by the disaster which, in February 1782, befel another British detachment in the district of Tanjore. There Colonel Brathwaite, at the head of 100 Europeans and 1,800 Sepoys, found himself surrounded and surprised by an army of Mysore, under Hyder's son Tippoo and M. Lally. He and his men fought most bravely, but at last were overpowered by superior numbers; and all either cut to pieces or taken captive and consigned to the dungeons of Seringapatam.

In the same month of February, 1782, the armament from France, so long expected, appeared off the coast of Coromandel. Its command had devolved on *D^e Suffren*, one of the best seamen whom his country can boast. He had been trained in the Order of the Knights of Malta, who at this time conferred upon him the high rank of their *Bailli*. Ready, bold, and enterprising, of most active habits although of most unwieldy size, he was likewise never wanting in judgment or in skill. Already, on his outward voyage, he had fought a pitched battle with an English squadron at Porto Praya, in one of the Cape de Verd Islands. By his prompt arrival at the Cape of Good Hope he had secured that colony against the same squadron for his new allies the Dutch. In India it was one of his first cares to land at Porto Novo 2,000 French soldiers whom he had on board, to form, with their countrymen already serving, an auxiliary force to the armies of Mysore. These troops being joined by Tippoo, flushed as he was then with his triumph over Colonel Brathwaite, they proceeded in conjunction to invest Cuddalore, a seaport town between Porto Novo and Pondicherry. Having to encounter only a feeble garrison of 400 men, they easily prevailed in their attack, and Cuddalore, thus wrested from the English, became of great importance to the French, both as a place of arms and as a harbour, during the whole remainder of the war.

It so chanced, that at the very time when the armament from France appeared in the Indian seas, the British fleet in that quarter was seasonably reinforced by several new ships from England. M. de Suffren and Sir Edward Hughes, the two Admirals here opposed to each other, were antagonists well matched, both for skill and intrepidity. In the period between February, 1782, and June, 1783, no less than five pitched battles were fought between them. In these their force was very nearly equal, with only a slight superiority on most occasions on the side of the French.* But in none of these was any decisive advantage gained by either party. The English might constantly prefer a slight and nominal claim to the honours of the day; yet, in truth, these honours belonged to all the brave men who were here contending. No ship of war was captured; no overwhelming loss of men was achieved; and, in turning to the best account the results of every action, De Suffren showed a far superior skill, especially in the retaking Trincomalee and the relieving Cuddalore.

The arrival of the French auxiliaries to the forces of Mysore was, in a great measure, counterbalanced by the peace which at this time Hastings concluded with the Mahratta states. Thus, the English could continue to wage, on no unequal terms, the war in the Carnatic until, in December, 1782, it received a new turn from the illness and death of Hyder Ali. This event was concealed as long as possible, to afford time for Tippoo, who was then upon the coast of Malabar, to return and claim in person the allegiance of the people and the troops. But when the intelligence did at last reach Calcutta, it fired anew the energies of Sir Eyre Coote. Weak health had compelled the failing veteran, after one more battle with Hyder at Arnee, to withdraw from the field in the Carnatic, and sail back to his Council-chambers of Bengal. Now, however, he felt, or he fancied, his strength in some

* Thus, in the second action (April, 1782), the English line consisted of eleven ships, carrying 732 guns, and the French of twelve, carrying 770. In the third action, however (July, 1782), the English ships were eleven, and the French eleven also; the English guns 732, and the French 760. (Hutchinson's History of India, vol. 2, p. 323, and 395.)

degree restored, and he was eager to measure swords against the new Sultan. For this purpose he embarked in an armed vessel which carried out supplies of money to Madras. This, towards the close of its voyage, was chased for two days and two nights by some French ships of the line. During all this time the General's anxiety kept him constantly on deck. The excessive heat by day, the unwholesome dews at night, wrought sad havoc on his already wasted frame; and thus, although the ship with its pecuniary treasure escaped from its pursuers, its most precious freight could not be permanently saved. Sir Eyre Coote expired in April, 1783, only two days after he had landed at Madras.

Tippoo during this time had returned to the coast of Malabar. There he had to wage war against General Mathews and a body of troops from Bombay set free by the peace with the Mahrattas. The English General at first had great successes, reducing both Bednore and Mangalore. But the appearance of the Sultan at the head of 50,000 men changed the scene. Mathews was besieged in Bednore and taken prisoner with all his Europeans. Being accused, though unjustly, of a breach of faith, he was put in irons, and sent in the strictest duress with many of his comrades to Seringapatam, there to perish in the dungeons of the tyrant.

At Madras the command of the forces, in the absence of Sir Eyre, had devolved, though far less adequately, on General Stuart. That officer, in the spring of 1783, commenced operations against the French in Cuddalore, who had lately received from Europe some considerable reinforcements under M. de Bussy. The lines in front of the town, which Bussy had well fortified, and which he no less valiantly defended, were assailed by Stuart with more of intrepidity than skill. The fleets also, on both sides, hastened to the scene of action; and at the close of June some decisive engagements were expected, both by sea and land, when suddenly the tidings came that the preliminaries of peace between France and England had been signed at Versailles. By that compact Pondicherry and the other possessions of France in India, as they stood before the war, were to be restored. The French took possession accordingly, but on the other hand, the

recalled their detachment serving under Tippoo in Malabar, and prepared to sail back with their armament to France.

Tippoo then remained alone. He had set his heart on adding lustre to his arms by reducing in person the stronghold of Mangalore, but, having achieved that object in the autumn of 1783, he was no longer disinclined to treat with the English upon the footing of a mutual restitution of all conquests made since the commencement of the war. Thus was peace restored through all the wide extent of India, and thus did the administration of Hastings which endured until the spring of 1785, close, after all its storms, with scarce a cloud upon its sky.

Glancing back for a moment to the rise and progress of our Eastern empire, from the first victory of Clive till the final retirement of Hastings, we must feel that it was staided by several acts that we have reason to deplore. The true foundation or at least the true security, of our just and beneficent rule in India was that system of double government which the genius of Mr. Pitt devised. With every drawback however it may be said, and not merely of the later period, that the sway even of the worst of the foreign governors was better than the sway even of the best of the native princes. The people of Hindostan might sometimes see a neighbouring tribe, like the Rohillas, assailed by the English without any show of right, they might sometimes see one of their own chiefs foully dealt with or despoiled, as was the case with Omichund; yet still they felt that, among themselves, the poor man was protected from harm. They had no longer to fear the annual inroads of the Mahratta horsemen through the teeming rice-fields of Bengal. They had no longer to fear that even those handfuls of rice which the enemy had spared might be snatched from them by the first man in office who passed along—by any minion, however base, of their own Sultan or Soubahdar. Viewing these things, they were disposed to regard the best English chiefs with gratitude, as most mild and equitable rulers. While in England, Clive and Hastings were commonly rallied against as tyrants, in India they were commonly extolled as benefactors. Already we were growing up

in the Indian people that feeling — far more fully unfolded at the present period — that feeling on which the permanence of our Eastern empire, if permanent it be, must mainly rest — that feeling which, to give one homely instance of it, led two villagers, when they did not deem a stranger nigh then, thus to commune with each other. "A good rain, this for the bread," said the one. "Yes," was the answer, "and a good government, under which a man may eat bread in safety!"*

The future destinies of India, so far as human eye can scan them, are all surely fraught with the fairest hopes. Everywhere in that country has victory crowned our arms. The last of our rivals on the Sutlege has utterly succumbed before us. Yet our security from the perils of war has in no degree, as I conceive, made us neglectful of the arts of peace. The desire to do our duty by that high and solemn trust has never yet been so earnestly felt amongst us; it pervades, it animates, all parties in the country. Taught by gradual experience, our system of government has been improved, and is still improving. High ability is trained both at Addiscombe and Haileybury for the objects both of administration and defence. In India lines of railway are beginning to span the boundless plains. The great want of the country and the climate, Irrigation, a want too long unheeded by the English rulers, has at length attracted their anxious care. With cultivation thus quickened by our wealth and directed by our skill, we may trust that in another age, the supplies of Tea within our own dominions may be such as to rival, perhaps even to supersede, the produce of the provinces of China. We may trust that the supply of Cotton for our looms may become the largest from that region which gave to Cotton its first name in the Western world.† Above all, we may indulge a well-grounded

* Conversation overheard by Archdeacon Corrie. See Bishop Heber's Journal, vol. ii. p. 53, ed. 1828.

† "Superis arboribus, in Arabiam vergens, gignit fruticem, quem aliqui *Arabis* vocant, plures *Xylon*, et idcirco *lins* inde acti. *Xylina*. *Arabis* quidamque barbatæ nucis desert fructum &c. (Plin. *lib. 12. c. 1.*) On this passage Colonel Wilks observes, "The word *Arabis* was certainly not derived from the Arabs, who were not known to the Greeks; but it bears a strong

confidence that advancement in knowledge and in morals may here keep pace with the progress of prosperity, and that as the fouler Hindoo superstitions already pale before the growing light of day, so that God, in his own good time, and in the measure of his own appointed Revelation, may, even to this long benighted people, make himself clearly and fully known.

"resemblance to the common Indian pronunciation of Ceylon; as
"muslin from Moosul and calico from Calicut, the emporia from which
"these substances became known in the west." South of India
vol. iii. p. 20.

CHAPTER LXX.

LIFE AND MANNERS.

WITH some new classes of critics, or of those who claim to be so, it has grown a common reproach against the historian of almost every period, that while dwelling at full length on battles and on sieges, on cabals and state-intrigues, on nobles and on princes, he lightly glides over the true condition, — the habits and the feelings, — of the people. But they who thus complain have perhaps considered rather the importance of the subject than the scantiness of the materials. While the deeds of a fleet or army, of a Sovereign or senate, are graven on brass and marble, or chronicled in records and rolls, the customs and pursuits of private life and the course of every-day affairs, being deemed too slight for commemoration in their own age, for the most part elude the discernment of the next. During the darker ages scarce any means exist to fill the void. Even within the last two centuries the means are very far from adequate. Nor are these in any measure obvious and easy to the learner. They cannot, like the narrative of wars or treaties, be deduced from any continuous chain of documents; but must be, where they can be, gleaned from a thousand scattered hints. For their sake we must explore the gloomy secrets of the scaffold and the prison-vault; for their sake we must gather far and wide the gossip of familiar correspondence, the entries of journals and account books, or the occasional allusions in novels, plays, and songs. And even with regard to these last, though giving us what nothing else supplies, they must not be implicitly received; on the contrary, the utmost caution and reserve are needed, lest we mistake the caricature for the portrait, and the exception for the rule.

On comparing the Great Britain of the last century with the Great Britain of the present day, the change is nowhere more apparent than in the ease and speed of travelling, and the consequent increase of travellers. Of this the steam-engine is of course the principal cause; but it should be noted, that personal security likewise is a plant of later growth. Only three summers since, a French gentleman in the Highlands was gazing with some surprise at the tranquil and orderly scenes around him, and saying that his friends at Paris had advised him to come upon his journey well provided with pistol and sword, since, as they bid him bear in mind, "you are going to the country of Rob Roy!" We can scarce blame these Parisians for so faithfully remembering that little more than a hundred years ago Rob Roy was able to levy his "black mail" on all who came beneath the shadow of his mountains. But they might at least with equal reason have applied the same advice to England; for much less than a hundred years ago, the great thoroughfares near London, and, above all, the open heaths, as Bagshot and Hounslow, were infested by robbers on horseback, who bore the name of highwaymen. Booty these men were determined by some means or other to obtain. In the reign of George the First they stuck up handbills at the gates of many known rich men in London, forbidding any one of them, on pain of death, to travel from town without a watch or with less than ten guineas of money.* Private carriages and public conveyances were alike the objects of attack. Thus, for instance, in 1775, Mr. Nuthall, the solicitor and friend of Lord Chatham, returning from Bath in his carriage with his wife and child, was stopped and fired at near Hounslow, and died of the fright. In the same year the guard of the Norwich stage (a man of different metal from the lawyer) was killed in Epping Forest, after he had himself shot dead three highwaymen out of seven that assailed him.† Let it not be supposed, that such examples were but few and far between; they might from the records of that time be numbered by the score, although in most cases the loss was rather of property than life. These

* *Lettres d'un Français (en Angleterre)*, vol. II. p. 224. ed. 1745.

† *Ann. Regist.* 1775, pp. 97. and 100.

outrages appear to have increased in frequency towards the close of the American War. Horace Walpole, writing from Strawberry Hill at that time, complains that, having lived there in quiet for thirty years, he cannot now stir a mile from his own house after sunset, without one or two servants armed with blunderbusses.* Some men of rank at that period — Earl Berkeley, above all — were famed for their skill and courage in dealing with such assailants. One day — so runs the story — Lord Berkeley, travelling after dark on Hounslow Heath, was awakened from a slumber by a strange face at his carriage-window and a loaded pistol at his breast. "I have you now, my Lord," said the intruder, "after all your boasts, as I hear, that 'you would never let yourself be robbed!'" — "Nor would I now," said Lord Berkeley, putting his hand into his pocket, as though to draw forth his purse, "but for that 'other fellow peeping over your shoulder.'" The highwayman hastily turned round to look at this unexpected intruder, when the Earl, pulling out instead of a purse a pistol, shot him dead upon the spot.

It is strange that so highly civilised a people should have endured these highway robberies so long. In this respect we scarcely seemed above the level of the modern Romans. But stranger still, perhaps, to find some of the best writers of the last century treat them as subjects of jest, and almost as subjects of praise. From such productions as the "Tom Clinch" of Swift, or the "Beggars' Opera" of Gay, we may collect that it was the tone in certain circles to depict the highwaymen as daring and generous spirits, who "took to the road," as it was termed, under the pressure of some momentary difficulties, — the gentle-folk, as it were, of the profession, and far above the common run of thieves.†

A highly intelligent traveller, towards the year 1770,

* To the Earl of Bradford, Oct. 3. 1752

† Some of these worthies appear to have enjoyed a kind of traditional fame; — there is, for example, "the bold Turpin," who was hanged at York for robbing a stage-coach, in 1739. See his *Life* in the *Newgate Calendar* of 1780. Jackson (vol. ii. pp. 331—349.) Many of them showed great skill in their own achievements. "Not know me!" said one of them to the tollman on the Tottenham Road, "why I am Stephen the great, the famous highwayman!" (Ibid. vol. v. p. 142.)

On described a great number of our country inns, and with the whole in favourable terms. * There might be "effort" in many a wayside cottage such as Isaac Walton speaks of, neat and trim, with its rosemary-strewn sheets, its dish of new-caught trout, and its ballads on the walls. There might be splendour in some few houses, as "The Castle", at Marlborough, along the great Bath road, and other lines of daily and luxurious thoroughfare. Even in those of humble pretensions there was seldom wanting a secret bin, from the dust and cobwebs of which the landlord could draw upon occasion a bottle of excellent Bordeaux. Travellers of rank were frequently expected to call for such even when they had no need of it; "for the good," — as the phrase went — "of the house." But the dinner was seldom equal to the wine, and the charges were often exorbitantly high. When, in 1763, the Duke de Nivernois, the new ambassador from France, landed at Dover, he was astonished at the charges in his bill. This was no new matter of complaint. So early as 1619 we find Lord Herbert of Cherbury say: "At Calais, I remember, my cheer was twice as good as at Dover, and my reckoning half as cheap." †

Besides the slowness, the risk, and the cost of travelling, which might tend to diminish the journeys to London in that age, the country gentlemen were also in some measure kept away by their estrangement from the two first princes of the House of Hanover. Not a few who had been loyal subjects of Queen Anne disliked the reign of her German cousins, and began to cast a wistful look towards her nearer kindred beyond the sea. Without partaking, or desiring to partake, the Jacobite designs, they would at least, while giving it due form, "the King," as their first toast after dinner, make a motion with the glass to pass it on the other side of the water-decanter which stood before them, and imply or speak the words, "over the water." They would revile all adherents of the Court as "a parcel of Roundheads" and Hanover Rats." ‡ Roundhead, as is well known,

* See the Northern Tour, by Arthur Young, vol. iv. pp. 586-594.

† Life of Lord Herbert of Cherbury, p. 181, ed. 1729.

‡ This was the phrase of Squire Western, in *Pride and Prejudice*, book v. c.

was the by-word first applied to the Calvinistic preachers in the Civil Wars, from the close-cropped hair which they affected as distinguished from the flowing curls of the Cavaliers. The second phrase was of far more recent origin. It so chanced that not long after the accession of the House of Hanover, some of the brown, that is the German or Norway rats, were first brought over to this country (in some timber as is said); and being much stronger than the black, or till then the common rats, they in many places quite extirpated the latter.* The word (both the noun and the verb to rat) was first, as we have seen, levelled at the converts to the government of George the First, but has by degrees obtained a wider meaning and come to be applied to any sudden and mercenary change in politics.

While we may reject in all the more essential features such gross caricatures as those of Squire Western and Parson Trulliber, we yet cannot deny that many both of the country gentlemen and clergy in that age showed signs of a much neglected education. For this both our Universities, but Oxford principally, must be blamed. "I have heard," says Dr. Swift, "more than one or two persons of high rank declare they could learn nothing more at Oxford and Cambridge than to drink ale and smoke tobacco; wherein I firmly believed them, and could have added some hundred examples from my own observations in one of these Universities,"—meaning that of Oxford.† At Cambridge such men as Professor Saunderson had kept up the flame, worthily maintaining her high mathematical renown. But even here it is plain, from the letters of Gray, how little taste for poetry and literature lingered in her ancient halls. Oxford, on the other hand, so justly famed both before

4.). See the ceremony of the water-decanter described in *Red-gauntlet*, letter ix.

* See Pennant's *British Zoology*, vol. i. p. 115. ed. 1776. Though the brown species bears with us the name of the Norway Rat, Mr. Pennant remarks that "it is an animal quite unknown in Scandinavia." If of any kind were, it appears, first brought to America by the Dutch from Antwerp.

† Essay on Criticism, Education, Works, vol. ix. p. 373. ed. 1811. The Dean, however, afterwards limits his remark to "young bachelors" sent thither.

that age and after it, had then sunk down to the lowest pitch of dullness and neglect. Gibbon tells us of his tutor at Magdalen College, that this gentleman "well remembered he had a salary to receive, and only forgot he had a duty to perform." The future historian was never once summoned to attend even the ceremony of a lecture, and in the course of one winter might make unreprieved, in the midst of term, a tour to Bath, a visit into Buckinghamshire, and a few excursions to London.* We may incline to suspect the testimony of the sceptic against any place of Christian education, but we shall find it (allowing only for the superior license of every Gentleman Commoner), confirmed in its full extent by so excellent and so eminent a member of our Church as Dr. Johnson.† Here is his own account of his outset at Pembroke College. "The first day after I came I waited "on my tutor Mr. Jordan, and then stayed away four. "On the sixth Mr. Jordan asked me why I had not "attended. I answered, I had been sliding in Christ "Church meadow."† This apology appears to have been given without the least compunction, and received without the least reproof.

It is painful to read such charges against an University so rich in her foundations, so historic in her fame, and standing once more so high in the respect of those who have been trained within her walls. But the case is even worse, if possible, when we come to her system of Degrees. In granting these the Laudian Statutes still in name and theory prevailed. But in practice there appeared a degree of laxity which, were the subject less important, would be wholly ludicrous. Lord Eldon, then Mr. John Scott of University College, and who passed the Schools in February, 1770, gave the following account of them: "An examination for a Degree at "Oxford was in my time a farce. I was examined in "Hebrew, and in History. 'What is the Hebrew for "the place of a skull?' I replied, 'Golgotha.' 'Who

* "Memoirs of my Life," p. 70. ed. 1633. Dr. Johnson, himself for many years a Professor at Oxford, adds in a note (p. 86.), that from the best authority, he has understood Gibbon's observations to have been at that time by no means exaggerated.

† Life of Howell, ch. iii.

‘founded University College?’ I stated (though, by the way, the point is, sometimes doubted) that King Alfred founded it. ‘/ry well, Sir,’ said the Examiner, ‘you are competent for your Degree!’^{*} Similar to this is the description in 1780 by the Rev. Vossius Knox: “The Masters take a most solemn oath that they will examine properly and impartially. Dreadful as all this appears, there is always found to be more of appearance in it than reality, for the greatest dunce usually gets his TESTIMONIUM signed with as much ease and credit as the finest genius. . . . The Statutes require that he should translate familiar English phrases into Latin. And now is the time when the Masters show their wit and jocularity.” I have known the questions on this occasion to consist of an inquiry into the pedigree of a race-horse![†] The Commissioners of 1850, who quote these testimonies, add, that at the time in question the Examiners were chosen by the candidate himself from among his friends, and that he was expected to provide a dinner for them after the examination was over. Oaths upon this subject, as upon most others, proved to be no safeguard. Oaths at Oxford were habitually taken because the law required them, and habitually disregarded, because their fulfilment had become impossible in some cases, and inconvenient in many more.

From this ignominious state the studies of the University were not rescued till the commencement of the present century. In 1800 a new Statute was passed, chiefly, it is said, at the instance of Dr. Eveleigh, Provost of Oriel, which reformed the whole system of Examination, and awarded honours to the ablest candidates. By another Statute, in 1807, a further great improvement was effected. A division then was made between the Classical and the Mathematical Schools, and the first who attained the highest rank in each was a future Prime Minister, — Sir Robert Peel.

The last century at Oxford was indeed, as a valley between hills. Look either at the age which preceded,

* *Tristram Shandy*, vol. i. p. 57.

† *Works of the Rev. Vossius Knox*, vol. i. p. 377.

‡ *Report of the Oxford University Commission*, p. 60. ed. 1854.

or at the age which followed it, and own their intellectual elevation. At either of those periods a traveller from London might, as he left the uplands, and crossed the Cherwell bridge, have wandered through the proud array before him of pinnacles and battlements, — from where spread the cloisters of Magdalen, and the groves that bear Addison's name — to the books and the galleries of the Bodleian, to that unequalled chapel of New College, or to that noble bequest of Wolsey, the wide quadrangle of Christ Church, — and all the way met nothing that misbecame the Genius of the Place — nothing to clash with the lofty and reverent thoughts which it suggested. He would have seen many men of eminent learning and high spirit, men not unworthy of the scenes in which they dwelt, men not misplaced among the high-wrought works of Art, or the storehouses of ancient knowledge, — the foundations of Saints, and the monuments of Martyrs. There, in the reign of Charles the First, he might have seen the Heads and Fellows cheerfully melt their plate or pour down their money for the service of their Royal Master, — willing to dare deprivation and poverty, — willing to go forth unfriended into exile, rather than bate one jot of their dutiful allegiance both to Church and King. There, in the reign of James the Second, he might have seen those cloisters of Magdalen the last and the firmest citadel of freedom. Or, if the lot of the traveller whom we suppose had been cast on these later days, if he had visited Oxford under the Fourth George, or the Fourth William, he would then, amidst some indefensible abuses, have found much, very much, to admire and commend. He would have found most indefatigable Tutors, most searching Examinations, most hard-fought Honours. He would have found on all sides a true and growing zeal for the reputation and well-being of the place. But in the middle of the last century there were none of these things. The old spirit had sunk, and the new not yet arisen.

The general contempt into which Oxford had fallen in the middle of the last century is further indicated by a lively touch of satire in Lord Chesterfield's Letters. The writer assumes it as quite impossible that any person well acquainted with that University could desire it to

become the place of education of his children. Speaking in the character of a country gentleman he says, "When I took my son away from school, I resolved to send him directly abroad, having been at Oxford myself!"*

The remissness of the tutors at Oxford and at Cambridge led, of course, to other neglects of duty in those whom they had failed to teach. Such neglects were only too apparent in the Church of England of that age. Let us hear upon them a wholly unexceptionable witness — Dr. Thomas Newton, Bishop of Bristol, who died in 1782. • In his Account of his own life this Prelate states, that by living and residing so much at Bristol he had hoped that his example would have induced the other members of the Church to perform their part also, and fulfil, at least, their Statutable duties. The Deanery, he states, was worth at least 500*l.* a year, and each Prebend about half that sum; and for these preferments the residence then usually required was three months for the Dean and half that time for each Prebendary. "But alas!" continues the worthy Prelate, "never was Church more shamefully neglected. The Bishop has several times been there for months together without seeing the face of Dean or Prebendary, or anything better than a Minor Canon." And as, in some cases, there were undisguised neglects of duty, so in others we may trace its jocular evasion. We may learn, on the same Episcopal authority, that the Church of Rochester was in no less ill plight than the Church of Bristol; and that on one of the Prebendaries dining with Bishop Pearce, the Bishop had asked him: "Pray, Dr. S., what is your time of residence at Rochester?" — "My Lord," said he, "I reside there the better part of the year." — "I am very glad to hear it," replied the good Bishop.

* Essay in "The World," May 3. 1753. In 1746 a poet describes us follows the reminiscences of a country clergyman while yet an Oxford Fellow: —

"When calm around the common room,
"I puff'd my dally pipe's perfume,
"Took for a stomach and inspectal
"The annual hottlings cur'd select'd,
"And sat a tax'd, untroubled, under
"The shade of our pious Founder!"

See the "Pleasant Discontent," in Dodsley's Collection of Poems vol. ii. 1761.

But the Doctor's meaning and also the real fact was, that he resided at Rochester only during the week of the *Audit*!

Among the laity, as might have been expected, a corresponding neglect of Church ordinances was too often found. Bishop Newton cites it as a most signal and unusual instance of religious duty, that Mr. George Grenville "regularly attended the service of the Church every Sunday morning, even while he was in the "highest offices." Not only was Sunday the common day for Cabinet Councils and Cabinet dinners, but the very hours of its morning service were frequently appointed for political interviews and conferences.† It is gratifying to reflect, how clear and constant since that time has been the improvement on such points. The Lord Lieutenant, and for very many former years the representative, of one of the Midland shires, has told me that when he came of age there were only two landed gentlemen in his county who had family prayers, whilst at present, as he believes, there are scarcely two that have not.

We may also observe with pleasure, that many as were the neglects and shortcomings of the Clergy in that age, their lives, at least, were pure. No charge of immorality can, with justice, be brought against them, unless in such few and rare cases as in any very numerous body must, of course, in time arise.

The Dissenters of that age, or some of them, might have more zeal, but had even less of learning. In some cases we find their deficiencies acknowledged by themselves. Here is one entry from the Minutes of the Methodist Conference, in May, 1765. "Do not our people in general talk too much, and read too little? "They do."

To the neglect of education in that age we may also in part ascribe the prevalence of drinking and gaming. It is remarkable how widely the former extended, notwithstanding the high prices of wine. Swift notes in his account-book, that going with a friend to a London

Account of his own Life, by Bishop Newton, Works, vol. i. p. 324. ed. 1787.

† See for example the Chatham Correspondence, vol. iii. p. 337. and Franklin's Works, vol. v. p. 44.

tavern,) they paid sixteen shillings for two bottles of "Portugal and Florence."* Instances of gross intemperance were certainly in that age not rare. Lord Eldon assured me, that he had seen at Oxford a Doctor of Divinity whom he knew, so far the worse for a convivial entertainment, that he was unable to walk home without leaning for support with his hand upon the walls; but having, by some accident, staggered to the rotunda of the Radcliffe Library, which was not as yet protected by a railing, he continued to go round and round, wondering at the unwonted length of the street, but still revolving, and supposing he went straight, until some friend—perhaps the future Chancellor himself—relieved him from his embarrassment, and set him on his way. Even where there might be no positive excess, the best company of that day would devote a long time to the circulation of the bottle. In Scotland, where habits of hard-drinking were still far more rife than in England, the principal landed gentlemen, some eighty years ago, dined for the most part at four o'clock, and did not quit the dining-room nor rejoin the ladies till ten or eleven. Sometimes, as among the Edinburgh magnates, there might be a flow of bright conviviality and wit, but in most cases nothing could well be gladder than these toppers. There is named a Lowland gentleman of large estate, and well remembered in Whig circles, who used to say that, as he thought, "the great bane of all society is conversation!" The same hard-drinking tendency in Scotland may be traced in another fact,—that while any young man of gentle blood was deemed to lose caste if he engaged in trade, an exception by common consent was made for the congenial business of a wine merchant.

Gaming was abhorred by George the Second no less than by George the Third.† But, in spite of the Royal discountenance, it flourished through the whole period comprised in the present History. There is one case recorded of a lady who lost three thousand guineas at one sitting at Loo.‡ Among the men, Brookes' Club,

* Journal to Beila, October 8. 1710.

† Letter of Lord Chesterfield to his Son, June 26. 1752, *et finem*.

‡ Ann. Register 1730, p. 21.

and White's are mentioned, as more especially the seats of high play. Mr. Wilberforce, coming up to London as a young man of fortune, has related the endeavours that were used to engage him at a Faro-table in the former, where George Selwyn kept bank. And, he adds, "The very first time I went to Boodle's I won twenty-five guineas of the Duke of Norfolk." * Many in that age were the ancestral forests felled, and the goodly lands disposed of to gratify this passion — scarcely less than in the days of Charles the Second, when the King himself would hold the dice-box, and when Lord Carnarvon used to say that wood was an excrescence of the earth provided by Nature for the payment of debts! † But, although the high play continued, the games were wholly changed. Thus, the terms in Ombre and Bassette, which Pope in his "Rape of the Lock," and Lady Mary Wortley in her "Town Eclogues," assume as quite familiar, became by degrees almost unintelligible. The discovery of a new game in the last years of the American War tended greatly to diffuse the spirit of gaming from the higher to the lower classes. This was the E. O. table, which was thought to be beyond the reach of law, because not distinctly specified in any Statute. In 1782 a Bill was brought in, providing severe penalties against this or any other new games of chance; and the Bill, after some debate, passed the Commons, but in the Lords was lost, owing to the lateness of the Session and the pressure of business at Lord Pockingham's death. ‡ In the debates upon this subject, Mr. Byng, as Member for Middlesex, stated, that in two parishes only of Westminster there were 296 E. O. tables, and that he knew of instances where bankrupts had gained 20,000*l.* by E. O. Another Member added, that at least 500 other tables were upon the stocks, and that E. O. tables might now be found at almost every country town. Servants and apprentices, it seems, were drawn in to take part in these games, cards of direction to them being often thrown

* Life of Wilberforce, by his Sons, vol. i. p. 16.

† See Pepys's Diary, May 5. 1667.

‡ Lords' Journals, July, 1782. The Bill with the Lords was three times in Committee, on July 6, 8, and 9, and several amendments had been made, but the Session was closed on the 11th.

down the areas of the houses; and the corners in were allowed to play on Sundays as freely as on other days.*

Sheridan, who, from his own private life, could not be expected to view the new Bill with any great favour, said against it, with some truth, that "it would be in vain to prohibit E. O. tables while a more pernicious mode of gaming was countenanced by law — he meant the "gaming in the lottery." Private lotteries were indeed prohibited, but State lotteries had long been ranked among our sources of revenue. In 1763, two lotteries were for the first time established in one year. In 1788 Mr. Pitt estimated the clear annual gains which they brought to Government at no less than 260,000*l.*; such, he said, was the rage and madness for this species of gambling, and such the bargain which, on competition among several bidders, he had made. This "lottery madness," as it has been truly termed, was it seems indulged in by night as well as by day. A traveller to London in 1775 observes that he could not help looking with displeasure at the number of paper lanthorns that dangled before the doors of lottery offices, considering them as so many false lights hung out to draw fools to their destruction.† Moreover, the mode of deciding the lottery prizes in that age seemed as though expressly designed to favour gambling speculation, and came to be prohibited long before the lotteries themselves had ceased. A certain number of tickets was drawn and declared each day, so that, according to the proportion drawn and to the prizes left behind, the price of the remaining tickets was enhanced. So common and well-known was this practice that it might afford an illustration to the moralist and preacher: "At the close of the lottery of life" — thus to Pope writes Bishop Atterbury — "our last minutes, like tickets left in the wheel, rise in their valuation."‡

Besides such ill practices as drinking and gaming, we

* See the *Parl. Hist.* vol. xxiii. p. 110 — 113.; and Miss Edgeworth's *Belinda*, ch. xxviii.

† *Ann. Regist.* 1775, part. ii. p. 189.

‡ Letter dated November 23, 1731. This passage may be compared with the famous moral illustration drawn by Addison from an abstruse point in mathematics — the *Asymptotes*. (See the *Spectator*, No. c23.)

may further ascribe to that age not merely a more frequent breach of moral obligations, but, also, even where no fault of conduct is imputed, a want of moral refinement. We may guess the customary nature of the talk or the songs after dinner, when we find that in great houses the chaplain was expected to retire with the ladies. But in many cases we find this want of moral refinement extend even to the other sex. Of this a strong instance is afforded in a letter, hitherto unpublished, from a great politician and party-leader, William Pulteney, at that time Earl of Bath. Writing to his relative Colman, who had begun to practise as a Barrister, Lord Bath, whether in jest or earnest, alludes as follows to his own family circle:— "This letter I direct to you at Shrewsbury (on "Circuit), which is the nearest place to find you in. If "you are concerned in the trial of any rape, the ladies "desire you would send a minute particular account of all "that passed in it."* Another strong proof of the same conclusion may be gathered from the correspondence of Sir Walter Scott. His grand-aunt, Mrs. Keith of Ravelstone, a lady then far advanced in life, applied to him in his younger years, to obtain for her perusal the novels of Mrs. Afra Behn — some of the most licentious in the language. Scott, though not without some qualms, complied with the request. The peccant volumes were, however, most speedily returned. "Take back your bonny Mrs. Behn," said Mrs. Keith, "and if you will follow my advice, put "her in the fire. But is it not a strange thing," she added, "that I, a woman of eighty, sitting alone, feel "myself ashamed to look through a book which, sixty "years ago, I have heard read aloud for the amusement "of large circles of the best company in London?"†

By the course of novels and romances we may indeed measure, in some degree, the advance of moral refinement in our countrywomen. Fielding, whose masterpiece, *Tom Jones*, appeared in 1749, though far less licentious than Mrs. Behn, is far more so than the present taste approves. The same remark applies both to Smollett and to

* MS. letter March 23. 1759. Original in MS. Mus. purchased 1854.

† Letter from Sir Walter Scott to Lady Emma Stuart, 1821. *Edin. Rev.* vol. x. p. 120. See also *ibid.* vol. x.

Sterne's *Tristram Shandy* dates from 1759 — must be acknow-
 ledged to have the former many passages of free descrip-
 tion, and the last a long train of covert hints. But at the
 same period Tom Jones there appeared another work of
 fiction that held forth the first volumes of *Clarissa Har-
 lowe*. The author, Richardson, was already known by
 his *Pamela* a few years before, and was further distin-
 guished by Sir Charles Grandison a few years after-
 wards. However his theme the delineator of *Clarissa*
 seldom without some moral lesson in his view.
 And when Fielding, with admirable skill, portrayed the
 specialities of the English character, Richardson no
 less successfully applied himself to the inmost feelings
 and failings of the human heart as in all countries they
 exist. That very reason, while we find Fielding but
 seldom shed out of England, Richardson has perhaps
 obtained more of value and esteem in translations,
 or upon the Continent, than at home. It is striking, by
 the way, that the contempt which these two great
 masters of fiction, each so eminent in his own sphere,
 enter at heart for each other. Richardson would
 speak of Fielding, even to Fielding's sister, as utterly
 low and vulgar, while Fielding thought Richardson both
 pedantic and prolix. From the latter charge, indeed, it
 is not matter to defend him. A lady of the Edin-
 burgh, who loved, in her old age, to have novels
 read for her as she sat in her elbow-chair, used to prefer,
 for purpose, Sir Charles Grandison beyond any other
 fiction, "because," said she, "should I drop
 in the course of the reading, I am sure when
 I shall have lost none of the story, but shall find
 exactly where I left them, conversing in the cedar-
 arbor!"
 wavering state of the public in the matter of such
 as *Fielding's* was finally turned against them
 her *satirical* examples. Three most remarkable
 of *Scott's* were composed in 1759, in 1763, and in
 ; the one a philosophical essay in the garb of an
 ern tale, the second a delightful picture of rural

life in England; the third, the parent of a brood, the earliest of what we may term romances, distinguished from novels. To this description, it is needless to add the names of *Rasselas*, the *Vicar of Wakefield*, and the *Castle of Otranto*. Differing from each other—differing as did *Johnson*, *Goldsmith*, and *Horace Walpole*—their authors agree in this one point, that there is nothing in them by which the most shrinking delicacy could be wounded. The contrast of *Miss Burney's* style with that of *Fielding*, though more recent, was stronger still, because the subjects on which she dwelt were more nearly the same as *Fielding's*. *Miss Burney*, whose *Evelina* appeared in 1778, and was followed by *Cecilia* in 1782, was the first to show that scenes both of low life and of high might be delineated with lively skill, and in a vein of broad comic humour, without even a single line unfit to meet a young lady's eye, or unworthy to proceed from a young lady's hand.*

Although in the last century the common male education was undoubtedly less high-level of female education seems some ground to conjecture that it is now. number of ladies studied the dead languages a greater picture to ourselves, as an instance, *Lady Montagu* in her girlhood, seated in the "lily *Wortley*" which she has described at *Thoresby*, and in the parlour, oaks of the forest full in view, but relinquish the old mer stroll beneath them to converse the Latin a sum-
Epictetus, and to render it in English, version of *Burnet* by her side, smiled on her young Bishop and directed them. Yet her learning never ceases, Mary to condemn the pursuits more especially of her sex; on the contrary, we find her say, in her later letters, while treating of her granddaughters of her
 tion, "I think it as scandalous for a woman's education, how to use a needle, as for a man not to know how to use a sword."†

* See the excellent concluding remarks of *Mr. Bayly* upon *Madame d'Arbly*. (Edinburgh Review, 1832.)
 † To the Countess of Bute, January 22, 1693.

It may be worthy of note, that in the earlier part of the last century, a young lady whose education was completed, was addressed in the same form as if already married. As she was a "spinster" by law, so was she a "mistress" by courtesy. Thus, for example, Lady Mary Wortley Montagu directs her letters for the maiden sister of her husband, to Mrs. instead of Miss Wortley. This peculiarity is the more remarkable, since, at a shortly previous period, the very opposite, at least among certain classes, prevailed in France. As an instance, we may observe in the "*Impromptu de Versailles*," that the wife of the greatest genius for comedy of modern times, bore the title, not of Madame, but of Mademoiselle, Molière.

A greater contrast can scarcely be conceived than between the dresses of the present day and those in vogue a hundred or a hundred and fifty years ago. Even with the aid of Kneller's pictures we can scarcely bring to our mind's eye our grandmothers in their hoops and hair-powder, or our grandfathers with their huge periwigs and their clumsy shoes, with buckles at their feet and at their knees, with rich velvet for their morning attire, and always with a sword at their side. A gold snuff-box took the present place of a cigar-case, and a gold-headed cane the present place of a switch. So high were the heels then commonly worn, that Governor Pitt was enabled, in travelling, to conceal in a cavity which he had formed in one of them the great diamond which he had brought home from the East Indies. Towards the time of the American War the ladies adopted a new and strange head-dress, building up their hair into a most lofty tower or pinnacle, until the head, with its adjuncts, came to be almost a fourth of the whole figure. Several varieties of this extravagant fashion may be traced in the engravings of that day. "I have just had my hair dressed," writes Miss Burney's Evelina. "You cannot

verb (preserved in the collection of Cesar Oudin, 1624), is by no means favourable to those ladies who study the language of Cicero and Virgil.

Más que haze hin hin

Y auger que habla Latin

En sus historias bien fin.

"think how oddly my head feels; full of powder and black pins, and a great cushion on the top of it!" Towards the time, however, of the Peace of 1763, there began to spread among both sexes a taste for greater plainness and simplicity of attire. This taste, like most others on this subject, appears to have come from France, and to have proceeded, in some degree, from the precept and example of Rousseau.* But America also, it is said, gave an impulse in the same direction. Wraxall—for his authority, though slight, may suffice for such matters as these—complains, towards the year 1781, that Mr. Fox, who in early youth paid great attention to his dress, had grown wholly to neglect it. "He constantly, or at least usually, wore in the House of Commons, a blue frock coat and a buff waistcoat, neither of which seemed, in general, new, and both sometimes appeared to be thread-bare. Nor ought it to be forgotten that these colours then constituted the distinguishing badge or uniform of Washington and the American insurgents."† Yet here I cannot but suspect some misrepresentation of the motive. It is hard to believe, even of the most vehement days of party-spirit, that any Englishman could avowedly assume, in the House of Commons, the colours of those who, even though on most righteous grounds, bore arms against England; and I should be willing to take in preference any other explanation that can be plausibly alleged.

By the influence, then, in some measure perhaps of both America and France, velvet coats and embroidered stomachers were, by degrees, relinquished. Swords were no longer invariably worn by every one who claimed to be of gentle birth or breeding. They were first reserved for evening suits, and finally consigned, as at present, to

* Besides sundry passages in the *Emile* see the *Nouvelle Héloïse*, part ii. lett. xxi. As against a dress, too costly, and for that very reason the longer worn, how effective is the single line: "Je n'aime ni galons ni taches!"

† "Memoirs of my own Time," vol. ii. p. 1. ed. 1815. See also Mackenzie's *Essay in the Lounger*, dated April 9, 1765. Buff waistcoats were then, it seems, the usual badge of all Whig gentlemen at Edinburgh. And as for the Whig ladies, "I have seen that most of them wore a fox's tail by way of decoration on their head-dress."

Court dresses. Nevertheless, several years were needed ere this change was fully wrought. In Guy Mannering, where the author refers to the end of the American War, he observes of morning suits, that, "though the custom of wearing swords by persons out of uniform had been gradually becoming obsolete, it was not yet so totally forgotten as to occasion any particular remark towards those who chose to adhere to it." Thus it may be difficult to fix the precise period of this change. But no one, on reflection, will deny its real importance. To wear a sword had been, until then, the distinguishing mark of a gentleman or officer. It formed a line of demarcation between these classes and the rest of the community; it implied something of deference in the last, and something of "knightliness," as Spenser terms it, in the former. Immediately after the cessation of this ancient usage, we find Burke lamenting that the age of chivalry was gone. Yet, although there was, or in theory at least there might be, some advantage in this outward sign of the feelings and the duties comprehended in the name of Gentleman, we must own that it was balanced by other evils, and especially by the greater frequency of duels it produced. Where both parties wore their swords, there was a constant temptation to draw and use them in any sudden quarrel. I may allege as a fair example the case, in 1765, of Mr. Chaworth and his country neighbour, Lord Byron, the grand-uncle and predecessor of the poet. These gentlemen had been dining together at the Nottinghamshire Club, which was held once a month at a tavern in Pall Mall. A discussion arose as to the comparative merits of their manors in point of game, and Mr. Chaworth was at length provoked into declaring that if it were not for Sir Charles Sedley's care and his own, Lord Byron would not have a hare on his estate. Upon this they withdrew to another room lighted by a single tallow-candle, where they drew their swords and fought, and where Mr. Chaworth was killed. Lord Byron was brought to trial before his Peers, and found guilty of Manslaughter only.*

* Howell's State Trials, vol. xix. p. 1179—1233. But a different view of Mr. Chaworth's language is given in Walpole's *Manners*, vol. ii. p. 51.

The population of England and Wales is computed to have increased from 5,066,000 in 1710, to 7,814,000 in 1780. * Of our rising manufactures and manufacturers I have treated in another place.† The agriculturists within that period were far indeed behind-hand if compared to those of the present day. Scarce any great and real progress in their modes of husbandry can be traced until after the accession of George the Third, when they were no doubt much animated by the personal example and predilection of the King in his farms both at Richmond and at Windsor. Until then the accounts from the most opposite quarters tell nearly the same tale of lands either wholly waste, or at least imperfectly tilled. Take, in the first place, the extreme northern county of Caithness. The daughter of Sir John Sinclair, in the biography which she has written of her father, states that when he first began his vigorous improvements, at the age of eighteen, and in the year 1772, the whole district round him presented a scene of most discouraging desolation. Scarce any farmer in the county owned a wheel-cart, and burdens were conveyed on the backs of women, thirty or forty of whom might be seen in a line, carrying heavy wicker-creels. "At that period," continues Miss Sinclair, "females did most of the hard work—driving the pellets or rowing the boats; and it sometimes occurred that if a man lost a horse or an ox, he married a wife as the cheapest plan to make up the difference." If we come to Northumberland, we shall find it alleged by Warburton, who was Somerset Herald to George the Second, and who published his "Vallum Romanum" in 1753, that "such was the wild and barren state of this country, even at the time I made my survey, that in those parts now called the wastes, and heretofore the debateable grounds, I have frequently discovered the vestiges of towns and camps that seemed never to have been trod upon by any human creature than myself since the Romans abandoned them; the traces of streets and the foundations.

* Preface to the first volume of the *Population Returns*, 1831, p. 45, as derived from Mr. Finlaison's tables.

† See vol. x. p. 3—9.

"of the buildings being still visible, only grown over with grass." The prevalence of turnip-growing in the place of fallows, which, says Mr. Grey of Dilston, has made a complete revolution in the management and value of land, took place in that county within the memory of living men. No turnip ever grew on a Northumbrian field till between the years 1760 and 1770, although they had been sown and reared in gardens for several years before.* It may be said not only of Northumberland, but of all the counties which are, in fact, what it calls itself — north of Humber — that, at the accession of George the Third, they were still, in great part, unclosed. As in 1832 I was riding with the late Earl of Harewood, at his seat near Leeds, he pointed out to me the remains of a narrow horse-bridge, with a turnpike beside it. This, he said, was, till his childhood, the sole communication between the Leeds district and the north, and that was the first toll which, on coming into England, the Scottish drovers had need to pay.

But let us pass to Lincolnshire, a county renowned perhaps beyond any other of the present day for its skilful cultivation and luxuriant crops; and let us hear certainly one of the most experienced and able of our living agriculturists. Only a few years since, Mr. Pusey, then the member for Berkshire, was engaged in a critical examination of the farming around Lincoln. As he journeyed onward, his attention was arrested by a column seventy feet high, which stood by the road-side. On inquiry from his companion, Mr. Handley, he learnt that it was a land light-house, built no longer since than the middle of the last century, as a nightly guide for travellers over the dreary waste which still retains the name of Lincoln Heath. But though the name might linger, the scene had wholly changed; the spirit and industry of the people had reared the most thriving homesteads around the column, and spread a mantle of teeming vegetation to its very base. "And it was "certainly surprising to me," Mr. Pusey adds, "to dis-

* See the Essay by Mr. John Grey of Dilston in the *Journal of the Royal Agricultural Society*, vol. ii. p. 151—193.

"cover at once the finest farming I had ever seen, and
"the only land light-house that was ever raised."**

As a hundred years ago, the lands were too often untilled, so were the cultivators of the land too often untaught. Throughout England, the education of the labouring classes was most grievously neglected, the supineness of the clergy of that age being manifest on this point as on every other. It would be very easy to adduce many cases of deplorable ignorance and consequent credulity at that period both in individuals and in whole villages or parishes. A few will suffice, however, to establish my conclusion.—A remarkable man, in after years the thief of a religious sect,—William Huntington,—describes himself as the son of poor parents in the Weald of Kent. Without any instruction during his first childhood, he found his vacant mind fill with silly fancies. "There was," says he, "in the village an exciseman, of a stern and hard-favoured countenance, whom I took notice of for having a stick covered with figures, and an ink-bottle hanging at his button-hole. This man I imagined to be employed by God Almighty to take an account of children's sins!"† A person of far superior merit and attainments,—Hannah More,—declares that on first going to the village of Cheddar, near the cathedral city of Wells, "we found more than two hundred people in the parish, almost all very poor; no gentry; a dozen wealthy farmers, hard, brutal, and ignorant. . . . We saw but one Bible in all the parish, and that was used to prop a flower-pot!"

Traces of ancient superstition were sometimes found to linger in the congenial darkness. Thus, in Northamptonshire, "Miss C. and her cousin, walking, saw a fire in a field, and a crowd around it. They said, 'what is the matter? — Killing a calf. — What for? — To stop

* Journal of the Royal Agricultural Society, vol. iv. p. 287. This column,—the "Dunston Pillar," is now, I believe, the property of the Earl of Ripon.

† Life of William Huntington, A. B. (trans. by James Savage), by himself, in his "Kingdom of Heaven taken by Storm," p. 35, ed. 1793. He adds, "I thought he must have a great deal to do to find out all the sins of children, and I loved him as a formidable being, more than the greatest enemy I had in all the world."

“the murrain.” They went away as quickly as possible. On speaking to the clergyman, he made inquiries. The people did not like to talk of the affair, but it appeared that when there is a disease among the cows, or when the calves are born sickly, they sacrifice, that is, kill and burn, one for good luck.”*

Pass we next to Suffolk. There, in the village of Wattisham, and in the year 1762, it chanced that six children of one family died in quick succession of a sudden and mysterious illness, — their feet having first mortified and dropped off. Professor Henslow, who resides at no great distance from Wattisham, has given much attention to the records of their case, and has made it clear in his excellent Essay on the Diseases of Wheat, that in all probability their death was owing to their imprudent use of deleterious food — the Ergot of Rye. But he adds, that in the neighbourhood, the popular belief was firm, that these poor children had been the victims of sorcery and witchcraft.†

Among the principal means which, under Providence, tended to a better spirit in the coming age, may be ranked the system of Sunday Schools. And of these, the main praise belongs to Robert Raikes. There are indeed some previous claims alleged on behalf of other persons, especially Miss Hannah Ball, at High Wycombe, in 1769. But certainly, at least, the example did not spread at that time. The elder Mr. Raikes being printer and proprietor of the Gloucester Journal, had been brought before the House of Commons, in 1729, for the offence, as it was then considered, of reporting their debates.‡ His son, born in 1735, became in due time his successor in his business. Struck at the noise and riot of the poor boys in his native streets, Raikes the younger established the first of his Sunday Schools in 1781. Thus, in one of his early letters does he explain his views — further carried

* Communion addressed to Jacob Grimm, and inserted by him in his *Deutsche Mythologie*, p. 576, ed. 1843. With his usual learning, he was anxious to show the genuine descent of this practice from a primitive Celtic rite. See also in White's *Selborne* (p. 229, ed. 1837), the stories of the seamed pollards and *shrew-ashe*.

† *Journal of the Royal Agricultural Society*, vol. ii. p. 76.

‡ See the *Annals of the History*, c. 126.

out in our own day by Lord Ashley's care: "I argue, therefore, if you can loiter about without shoes and a ragged coat, you may as well come to school and learn what may tend to your good in that footing. All that I require are clean hands, clean face, and the hair combed. . . . I cannot express to you the pleasure I often receive in discovering genius and innate good dispositions among this little multitude. It is botanizing in human nature."*

The benevolent exertions of Mr. Raikes were well seconded and widely diffused. His Schools received the early patronage and aid of several eminent Prelates, especially Dr. Porteus, at that time Bishop of Chester. Adam Smith bore his testimony to them in these remarkable words: — "No plan has promised to effect a change of manners with equal ease and simplicity since the days of the Apostles." Thus it happened that schools on Mr. Raikes's plan soon started up in almost every county. In London they owed their first secure establishment to the zeal of Mr. William Fox, a wholesale draper, assisted by Mr. Jonas Hanway, a gentleman who had first risen into notice by the publication, on a most ample scale, of his *Journey to Persia* in 1753 — who, since that time, had been forward in all works of benevolence, as in the foundation of the Magdalen Charity in 1758 — and who will be remembered as a philanthropist long after he is forgotten as a traveller.†

The progress of Agriculture at this period was greatly aided by the exertions of Arthur Young. As a working farmer in his youth he had applied himself with zeal to the improvement of tillage, and what he had begun as a profession ever afterwards continued his pursuit. He first attracted the attention of the public in 1768, by an account of a Six Weeks' Tour through the Southern Counties. The success of that experiment soon produced a Tour to the Northern Counties, in four volumes, and then another, of the same length, to the Eastern. These books were read the rather from their clear and lively

* Robert Raikes to Colonel Townley, November 22, 1783.

† *History of Sunday Schools*, by Lewis G. Pray, Boston, U. S. 1847. See especially pp. 132—160.

style, and proved of great practical importance from the contrasts which they drew, and the emulation which they excited. In 1780 he also described, in print, a Journey which he had made to Ireland, and in 1784 commenced his *Annals of Agriculture*, a periodical in monthly parts. Among the many contributions to that useful work came several from George the Third, in fact, though not by name. More than a year elapsed ere Young discovered that his unknown correspondent, Mr. Ralph Robinson, of Windsor, who sent him accounts of a farm at Petersham, was no other than the King.

It may be worthy of note, that in Norfolk the system of large farms—a system sometimes imputed as a blot in the great agricultural improvements pursued at a later period by Mr. Coke, of Holkham—has on its side the high authority of Arthur Young. "Great farms," says he, "have been the soul of the Norfolk culture; split them into tenures of an hundred pounds a year, and you will find nothing in the whole county but beggars and weeds." Even in his time, as he declares, the husbandry in Norfolk had advanced to a much greater height than he had seen any where else in England over an equal extent of soil.*

But far superior to Arthur Young—superior as the researches of a Newton are above, though supporting and supported by, the observations of an Astronomical Table—stands the name of Adam Smith. Born at Kirkcaldy, in 1723, he was for many years Professor of Moral Philosophy in the University of Glasgow; and his great work, "*The Wealth of Nations*," first appeared in 1776. That year may well deserve, on its account, to rank as an era in political science. Even at the moment of its publication, Dr. Johnson, though he was no friend of Adam Smith, though they had once a personal altercation at the house of Mr. Strachan, most properly rebuked the shallow criticism of Sir John Pringle, that an author who had never been in trade could not be expected to write well upon that subject, any more than a lawyer upon physic. On the contrary, "there is nothing," said Johnson, in a true statesman's spirit,

* *Recess Tour*, vol. ii. p. 161. ed. 1774.

"which requires more to be illustrated by philosophy than trade does."* And such illustration, such philosophy did, in rich measure, this great work supply. To say of the "*Wealth of Nations*" that it has faults and errors is only to say, in other words, that it is the work of man. But not merely did Adam Smith found the science of Political Economy; we might almost say of him that he completed it, leaving, at least as some have thought, to his successors, not so much any new discoveries to make, or any further principles to prove, but far rather conjectures to hazard and consequences to pursue.

It was not long ere some of the main doctrines of Adam Smith found adherents and disciples not only in Scotland, but in England, not only in England, but in France. In France they were, to some extent, engrafted on a small sect or party known by the name of "*Economists*," and founded by Dr. Quesnay, who had died in 1774.† The most eminent man at Paris who at first adhered to them was Turgot; the most eminent man in London, the Earl of Shelburne. With such men it was not long ere these doctrines left the domain of theory, and came, at least in some degree, to be tried in active life.

It was owing to Adam Smith, and to men like Adam Smith that Scotland, in his time, was, on many points, in practical advance of England. Education, at least in the more populous districts, was then certainly better cared for. At Edinburgh the school of Medicine was then perhaps the best in the world. Its literary circle of that period has not often, in any country, been exceeded. In the improvement of tillage the Lothians took the lead, and kept it. Nearly all the good gardeners came at that time from the north of Tweed. Even Dr. Johnson could not gainsay them this praise; he could only qualify it by a sarcasm on the badness of their native climate. "*Things which grow wild here,*" said he, "*must be cul-*

* Life by Boswell, under the date of March 16, 1776.

† The best account of Dr. Quesnay is to be found in the *Journal de Madame de Hapsbet*, first printed in the "*Mélanges d'Histoire et de Littérature*," (Mr. Crawford's) in 1817. See also the note at p. 176. "*Les Economistes s'appelaient le maître et disaient comme Socrate de Pythagore le maître de son école.*"

"tivated with great care in Scotland."* But further still we may trace among our northern neighbours a more early and enlightened zeal for measures of a sanitary character. Thus, in 1782, we find a Bill pass Parliament to prevent the slaughtering of cattle within the city of Edinburgh†, while similar prohibitions have been strangely neglected in London, even down to the present day.

Of both Edinburgh and London at that period, we may note how far either was as yet from its present size. Sir Walter Scott, where in Guy Mannering he treats of the close of the American War, says of his own romantic city, that "the New Town on the north, since so much extended, was then just commenced. But the great bulk of the better classes, and particularly those connected with the law, still lived in flats or dungeons of "the Old Town." In London, the whole space west of Buckingham Gardens—that space now covered with stately squares and streets surpassing of themselves, in wealth and splendour, several whole cities and capitals of Europe—was, in 1765, no better than a line of marshy fields. The entire front of it was then offered for sale to George the Third, at the price of 20,000*l.* and might probably have been still cheaper to a private man.‡ In 1780, Mr. Romilly, writing to his sister from Gray's Inn, complains of the cold north winds, and remarks that between himself and Hampstead or Highgate there was only one row of houses.§ But while masses of new tenements began to shoot forth on every side, the Government of the day took no thought or heed of reserving open spaces in the midst of them—either as parks for air and recreation, or as sites for future public buildings. A few thousands or even hundreds of pounds would then have sufficed to make the purchases for which at a later period hundreds of thousands would be needed.

As in Edinburgh, the tide of fashion turned from the Old Town to the New, so in London, though from other causes, the change was equally decided. Many of the

* Life, by Boswell, under the date of October 5. 1769.

† This was the Act 22 Geo. III. ch. 52.

‡ See the Memoirs of Horace Walpole, vol. ii. p. 160, and vol. iii. p. 4.

§ Memoirs of Horace Walpole, by his sons, vol. i. p. 120.

favourite resorts of the rich and great in the past age have since been relinquished wholly to the middle classes.* It may suffice to give as proofs the two chiefs of the last administration of Queen Anne. Bolingbroke, a man of the world no less than a man of business, lived in Golden Square, and Harky, till he became Lord Treasurer, in Buckingham Street, Strand. The rise and decline of Ranelagh — at one time by far the chief place of public entertainment — is another instance of the mutability of fashion. The ground on which it stood is now part of Chelsea Gardens, but had belonged to the Lords Ranelagh, and from thence its name. It was completed in 1742, and appears to have been pulled down in the first years of the present century. The principal room, called the Rotunda, had a span of 185 feet, in the centre an orchestra, and all round tiers of boxes, at which the company could sit down and take tea. "Two nights ago," — thus at the outset wrote Horace Walpole — "Ranelagh Gardens were opened at Chelsea; the Prince, Princess, Duke, much nobility, and much mob besides, were there. There is a vast amphitheatre, finely gilt, painted and illuminated, into which everybody that loves eating, drinking, staring, or crowding, is admitted for twelve pence." And again two years afterwards, when the fashion had grown: "Every night constantly I go to Ranelagh, which has totally beat Vauxhall. Nobody goes anywhere else — everybody goes there. My Lord Chesterfield is so fond of it that he says he has ordered all his letters to be directed thither. You cannot set your foot without treading on a Prince of Wales or a Duke of Cumberland!"

Our criminal law at that period betrays, in its indiscriminating rigour, the spirit of a barbarous age. Even Blackstone, so staunch on most occasions in supporting the system which he found, inveighs against "these outrageous pedalties," as he most truly terms them. Who would believe, he says, that in the eighteenth century it could be made a capital crime to break down the mound

* Horace Walpole to Mann, May 26, 1743, and to Conway, June 29, 1744. These and many other particulars of Ranelagh are collected in Mr. Peter Cunningham's *Antiquities and Anecdotes of the Hand-Book of London*.

of a fish-pond, or to cut down a cherry-tree in an orchard? Who would believe, that till the hour when he wrote, it still continued a felony without benefit of clergy, to be seen for one month in the company of gypsies, — “of persons who call themselves, or are called Egyptians?” The vindication of these laws, which Paley has attempted in his *Moral Philosophy*, dating from 1785, is surely a considerable blemish of that noble work. It is true, that in practice such savage punishments were not commonly inflicted. The subtlety of the law was here called in to amend its rigour. Take, for example, the cases of theft within a dwelling house. Death being then denounced whenever the value of the property stolen exceeded forty shillings, it became usual for compassionate Juries, even by direction of the Judge, to return the value as below that sum, even where, on the clearest evidence, the value was much more. And thus, instead of extirpating the one abuse from the Statute-Book, men tried to counteract it by another abuse in the opposite direction!

As these laws seemed the relic of a barbarous age, so did also some of the methods of enforcing them. Notwithstanding the merciful consideration in many cases, both of Judges and of Juries, the forfeiture of life for lesser crimes was in that age very frequent. The executions took place for the most part on Tyburn Gallows, which stood upon the present site of Connaught Place. It had been used for such scenes ever since the days of Henry the Fourth, and continued to be so till 1783, when an order was made that executions should henceforth take place in front of Newgate Prison. At Tyburn, many too celebrated malefactors met their doom. There, in 1724, suffered Jack Sheppard, amidst a concourse, it was said, of 200,000 persons; there, in 1725, Jonathan Wild “the Great.” There, was hanged, in 1760, the more than half insane Earl Ferrers, for the murder of his landward; and there, in 1777, the unhappy Dr. Dodd, at one time, an eminent or at least admired preacher, but

* Blackstone's Commentaries, vol. iv. p. 361, 1768. The Statute here referred to are, 22 Geo. II. c. 22. 24 Geo. II. c. 42. and 1 Geo. III. c. 20. — all now repealed.

who, in an evil hour, yielding to temptation, had forged a bond in the name of his pupil, the young Earl of Chesterfield, hoping that he might be able to repay its amount before it could be detected. On these occasions it was not unusual to find a strange kind of merriment, blended with the horror. Thus, the hangman's goose was sometimes designated as a "Tyburn Tippet," and the hangman himself, whatever his name might be, was always called "Jack Ketch," from the name of his predecessor in the days of James the Second. Jests flew from mouth to mouth, which it was said had been uttered by the criminals at the point of execution; and other still less pardonable jests proceeded from by-standers. Moreover, some men of fashion in that age, as George Selwyn, and George James, or, as he was called, "Gilly," Williams, had a morbid pleasure in witnessing these melancholy scenes. It appears that whenever Selwyn could not himself attend an execution, he desired to receive a minute account of it from one of the eye-witnesses.* On other occasions also, as was well known to his friends, he took a strange delight in gazing upon corpses.† The first Lord Holland, when upon his death-bed, said to his servant: "Next time Mr. Selwyn calls, by all means show him up. If I am alive, I shall be glad to see him, and if I am dead, he will be glad to see me!"

In the eighteenth century, as in the darker ages, objects of horror were displayed without scruple to the public gaze. It is well known how, in 1746, the heads of the rebel chiefs were affixed on Temple Bar. At that period, Horace Walpole, as he "passed under the new heads," saw "people make a trade of letting spying-glasses at a halfpenny a look!"‡ But on other occasions also, and for other motives, there was a like exhibition to the passers by. Thus, in the case of the murder of John Hayes, in 1726, the head of the murdered man who was then unknown was set forth upon a pole in the church-

* See, for instance, Dr. Dodd's execution described by Mr. A. Scott in Selwyn's Correspondence, vol. ii. p. 193, as edited by Mr. James.

† Dr. George Selwyn, August 25, 1746. This was before the execution of James the Earl of Mar and Keith.

yard of St. Margaret's Westminster, in hopes that the features might be recognised by some of the spectators, and that by these means a discovery might be made.* The pillory also — a most unjustifiable form of punishment, because not wholly judicial, and since the populace were allowed to take part in it by pelting — continued all through that century, and was undergone by such men as De Foe.

In that century the Prisons of Great Britain were teeming with frightful abuses. The popular suspicion or belief of such may be traced through the satires of the previous age.† In 1729, as I have elsewhere shown, there had been an inquiry by the House of Commons, so far, at least, as London was concerned.‡ But the Committee which then pursued its investigation and presented its Reports served mainly to disclose the evil, and did little to afford a remedy. Thus did both cruelty and peculation continue well nigh uncontrolled till the appearance of John Howard. That remarkable man belonged to the sect of English Dissenters called the Independents. It is supposed rather than known that he was born at Hackney in 1726. Of feeble health and wounded affections — for he was twice a widower before he was forty years of age — he had retired to his small patrimony of Cardington, near Bedford. No man was ever less ambitious of fame or seemed less likely to attain it. Besides some slight contributions to the Royal Society on the science of meteorology, and unwearied contributions of another kind to the neighbouring poor, he lived in close retirement. He read his Bible, and he noted his thermometer, and he desired only to pursue the even tenor of his way. But, as it chanced, he was named, in 1773, High Sheriff of his county. As such he was determined to fulfil his appointed duties. As such he

* See the "Tyburn Chronicle," vol. ii. p. 265., as published in 1768.

† Swift's description of the "Morning," written in 1708, has the following lines —

"The morning with his flock returning sees,
"That to the night he might be equal to the bees."

Works, vol. xiv. p. 100.

‡ See vol. ii. p. 100.

listened attentively to the trials of the prisoners in court : and inspected with the utmost care every part of the county gaol. Its walls were already dignified with the long captivity of Bunyan. And thus from that obscure and petty prison of Bedford — as one of the biographers of Howard has well observed — proceeded two of the noblest and most precious works of man — Bunyan's "Pilgrim's Progress" and Howard's labour of charity and love.*

The circumstance that first gave rise to Howard's zeal on behalf of prisoners, was his seeing many who being declared Not Guilty, after months perhaps of confinement were dragged back to prison, and locked up again until they should pay their appointed fees to the gaoler. Howard applied to his brother magistrates that the gaoler might henceforth be remunerated by a salary instead of fees. The Bench saw the grievous hardship, and were willing to grant the relief desired. But they wanted a precedent for charging the county with the expense. Forthwith did the High Sheriff mount his horse and ride through the neighbouring counties in search of precedents. But he soon learned that the same injustice was practised in them; and looking into their prisons he beheld scenes of calamity which he grew daily more and more anxious to relieve.

From that hour the zeal of Howard never slackened. In the fine language of the Psalmist, his heart yearned to such as sit in darkness and the shadow of death, being fast bound in misery and iron. Before the close of 1774 he had visited almost every prison-house in England. In almost all he found grievous though varying faults of management; and in some it may be said no management at all. Three from the many scores of his reports must here suffice as samples of the rest. And first as to the Plymouth Town-Gaol: — "There are three rooms for felons; the one about five feet and a half high, with a wicket in the door seven inches by five, to admit light and air. To this, as I was informed, some men who were confined near two months under sentence of transportation came by turns for breath. The door had not

"been opened for five weeks when I with difficulty entered to see a pale inhabitant. He had been there ten weeks under sentence of transportation, and said he had much rather have been hanged than confined in that noisome cell. . . . The whole is dirty and has not been white-washed for many years. No court, no water. The gaolers live distant; they are the three sergeants at Mace."

Come we next to the County Gaol at Salisbury:— "Just outside the prison-gate was a round staple fixed in the wall; through it was put a chain, at each end of which a common-side debtor padlocked by the leg stood offering to those who pass by nets, faces, purses, and so forth made in the prison. At Christmas felons chained together are permitted to go about: one of them carrying a sack or basket for food; another a box for money. 20*l.* a year of the Chaplain's salary (which in all is 40*l.*) is paid by Lord Weymouth by a bequest of Thomas Thynne, Esq. Lord Pembroke pays a legacy of 5*l.* a year out of the manor of Swallow Cliff in this county; part to the Chaplain himself, namely a guinea for a hat; the remainder to be by him distributed among the prisoners."

Gloucester Castle may stand last. Here the night-room (or main) for men felons, though up a number of steps, was found to be close and dark, and the floor so ruinous that it could not be washed. Only one sewer and no bath. The gaol-fever always prevalent and often mortal. No separation enforced between the sexes; giving rise to much licentious intercourse and to many illegitimate children born within the gaol. The keeper had no salary—the debtors no allowance of food. The first lived on extortion and the latter on charity. Yet amidst all these flagitious abuses of Gloucester Castle it is pleasing here again to trace the benevolent hand of the founder of Sunday Schools. Thus continues Howard: "In September the felons were very pitiable objects indeed, half-naked and almost famished. But in December their appearance was much altered. Mr. Raikes and other gentlemen took pity on them, and generously contributed towards the feeding and clothing

